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ABSTRACT

This manual is designed to be used by individuals being trained to deliver courses developed within the National Training System of the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA). The guide provides resources essential to understanding course content, and provides materials to enable participants to be actively involved in the learning exercises. The manual is divided into 10 modules focusing on: (1) adult learning theory; (2) small group process-the learning environment; (3) trainer style; (4) cultural considerations in training; (5) methods and media used in course delivery; (6) the processing of learning experiences; (7) interventions to enhance learning; (8) adaptations of training packages; (9) practica; and (10) formal and informal evaluations. Each module consists of goals, objectives, worksheets, reference sheets, and selected readings. A glossary of training terms is also included. (KMF)

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
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PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE
ALCOHOL, DRUG ABUSE,
AND MENTAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

PARTICIPANT MANUAL

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TRAINING OF TRAINERS

COURSE DESCRIPTION

PURPOSE

Training of Trainers describes the content and activities that constitute training delivery; identifies and describes the behaviors and skills associated with training delivery as a task area; identifies and elaborates on the major considerations of training program design and modification; and provides opportunities for participants to develop and refine those skills required for effective training delivery.

AUDIENCE

The primary focus of the course is toward those individuals who deliver or will deliver courses developed within the National Training System (NTS) of the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA). Those skills presented and developed in the course have broad applicability in the general field of training. Therefore, anyone wishing to up-date their skills and knowledge of delivery techniques for training programs can benefit from taking this course.

PREREQUISITES

The design of Training of Trainers assumes that each participant will have successfully completed the following NTS courses or their equivalents:

- Drugs in Perspective, NTS, 1979
- Group Facilitator Training Package, NTS, 1979.

TRAINING STAFF QUALIFICATIONS

The team that delivers Training of Trainers should, in addition to meeting the prerequisites required for participants, be certified as trainers according to the current NTS criteria; this assumes the trainers have an understanding of how people learn and the ability to work as part of a team, when necessary.

REQUIRED MATERIALS

- Trainer Manual

  The Trainer Manual is to be used by the trainer(s) in conjunction with the Participant Manual. The manual includes a sequence of topical areas and exercises, instructions for conducting the various activities, and the approximate time and materials required for each activity.

(CONTINUED ON INSIDE BACK COVER)

2 lbs 15 oz

PARTICIPANT MANUAL

TRAINING OF TRAINERS

NATIONAL DRUG ABUSE CENTER
FOR TRAINING
AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

National Institute on Drug Abuse
Division of Resource Development
Manpower and Training Branch
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20857

NATIONAL INSTITUTE
ON DRUG ABUSE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
AND HUMAN SERVICES

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MODULE I

MODULE I: INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE AND TO ADULT LEARNING THEORY

TIME: 4 HOURS

GOALS

- To enable participants to begin to get to know each other
- To help participants see how this course will meet their needs in becoming more effective trainers
- To enable participants to see the link between adult learning theory and the design of the content, organization, and methodology of this course
- To lay the groundwork for the application of concepts related to learning theory and adult learning to the delivery and facilitation of training.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Identify other participants by name
- Name the four basic variables in the adult learning process
- Discuss principles of adult learning in terms of how they learn best
- Diagnose those aspects of their own trainer style that enhance or detract from adult learning
- Name three domains of learning
- List at least three principles from any combination of learning theory orientation
- Describe at least four assumptions about adult learners
- Describe or give an example of the relationship between the kinds of learning activities participants will experience and the retention of learnings.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual
- Photocopies of the Pretest
- Registration sheet
- Participant list
- Name tags (optional)

WORKSHEET I-1
SELF-DIAGNOSTIC WORKSHEET
(FOR USE IN EXERCISE I-2)

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT LEARNERS	THINGS THAT FULFILL THESE CHARACTERISTICS	THINGS THAT VIOLATE THESE CHARACTERISTICS
1. Self-concept		
2. Accumulated Experience		
3. Readiness to Learn		
4. Immediacy of Application		

This worksheet was supplied by the National Center for Alcohol Education, which took it from the monograph, "The Leader Looks at the Learning Climate," by Malcolm Knowles. Published and copyrighted by Leadership Resources, Inc., Falls Church, Va. It is reproduced here by special written permission of the publisher.

EXERCISE I-2, OPTION A
CLOSED EYE RECALL

PURPOSE:

To explore for oneself the kinds of things that go into a learning experience

MATERIALS:

None

PROCEDURE:

1. Close your eyes and listen to trainer instructions.
2. After the trainer has told you to open your eyes, write your thoughts about what was positive and what was negative in the learning experience.
3. Verbally share as much or as little as you wish of your experience with the large group.

TIME:

30 minutes

EXERCISE I-2, OPTION B
STRUCTURED EXPERIENCE: HOW DO YOU LEARN BEST?

PURPOSE:

To explore the similarities and differences in how people learn

To share these similarities and differences within the training

MATERIALS:

Newsprint or flip chart
Felt-tip markers
Masking tape

PROCEDURE:

1. Form small groups of four persons each, seated in different areas of a large room or located in separate small-group rooms.

2. Think about the ways you learn best. In your small groups, discuss these ways for the next 15 minutes and list them on newsprint.

3. Select someone to be the spokesperson for the small group to report findings.

4. Post each small group's newsprint on the walls of the room.

5. Spokespersons report for their groups (10 minutes).

6. As a group, summarize the structured experience by noting similarities and differences in learning needs that trainers need to consider when designing and delivering training (5 minutes).

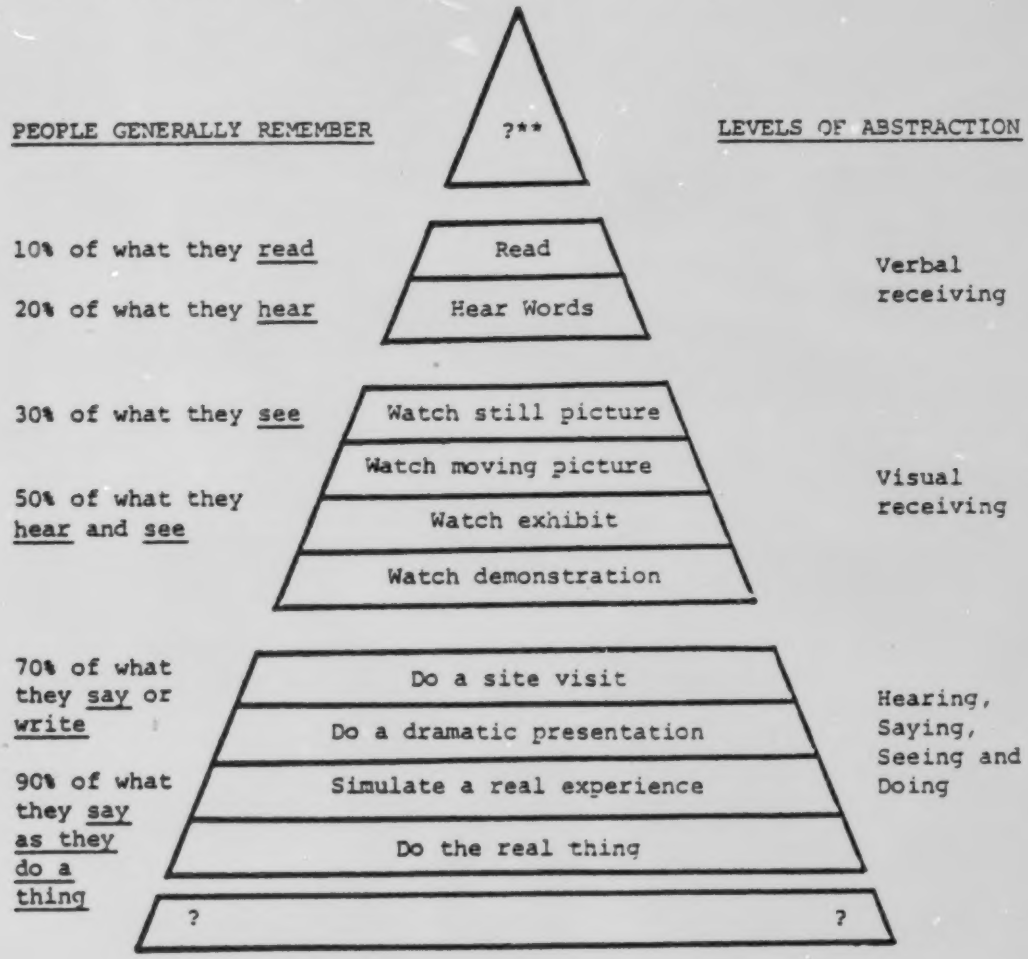
TIME:

30 minutes

REFERENCE SHEET I-1
DALE'S CONE OF EXPERIENCE

APPLICATION OF A BASIC LEARNING PRINCIPLE

An important learning principle that is supported by extensive research is that persons learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process. Dale's Learning Cone of Experience shown below shows various learning activities grouped by levels of abstraction. The left column indicates their relative effectiveness as training techniques.


PEOPLE GENERALLY REMEMBER
?**
LEVELS OF ABSTRACTION
10% of what they read
Read
20% of what they hear
Hear Words
Verbal receiving
30% of what they see
Watch still picture
Watch moving picture
50% of what they hear and see
Watch exhibit
Watch demonstration
Visual receiving
70% of what they say or write
Do a site visit
Do a dramatic presentation
Hearing, Saying, Seeing and Doing
90% of what they say as they do a thing
Simulate a real experience
Do the real thing
?
?

---

*See Wiman and Mierhenry, Educational Media, Charles Merrill, 1969, for reference to Edgar Dale's "Cone of Experience."

**Question marks refer to the unknown.

These are, however, general principles. Individuals vary greatly in the ways in which they learn best. Some people are visually oriented: they learn best through activities that emphasize reading and seeing slides, movies, and demonstrations. Other people are more influenced in their learning by what they hear rather than what they see, and still others learn best by doing.

REFERENCE SHEET I-2
A SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS OF ADULT LEARNERS

- Adults are at various stages of autonomy, and they exercise their autonomy in learning situations. Their concepts about themselves directly affect their behavior and desire to learn.
- Adults have a broad base of experience upon which to draw and to share with others.
- Adults seek to learn what they have identified as important rather than what others deem important.
- Adults look to learning what can immediately be applied.
- Adults are problem-centered rather than subject-centered.
- Adults want to know if what they are asked to learn is relevant to their needs.

REFERENCE SHEET I-3
TOT TRAINING ASSUMPTIONS

The training process followed in TOT is based upon certain assumptions; the most important of these are the following:

1. Learning may be defined as a change in behavior.
2. Participants bring with them a cluster of understandings, skills, appreciations, attitudes, and feelings that have personal meaning to them and that are in effect the sum of their reactions to previous experiences.
3. Participants have developed self-concepts that directly affect their behavior.
4. Learning requires activity on the part of the participants; they cannot be passive.
5. Ultimately, participants learn what they want to learn; they do not learn what they do not accept (or come to accept) as meaningful and useful.
6. Learning is enhanced when participants accept responsibility for their own learning.
7. Learning is directly influenced by the physical and social environment.
8. Learning is enhanced when the learning situation provides an opportunity to apply new information in as realistic a situation as is feasible.
9. Participants are more highly motivated when they understand and accept the purposes of the learning situation than when they do not.
10. Participants are motivated by experiences of success.
11. Participants tend to be motivated if they feel accepted by the trainer.
12. Participants are motivated when they can associate new knowledge with previous knowledge.
13. Participants are motivated when they can see the usefulness of the learning in their own personal terms.

Adapted from a list from Teachers and Learners, by Alfred Gorman, 1974. This article was reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

REFERENCE SHEET I-4
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SELECTED READING I-1

HILGARD'S GROUPING OF LEARNING PRINCIPLES

HILGARD'S GROUPING OF LEARNING PRINCIPLES*

Now let's take a look at Hilgard's (1966) Grouping of Learning Principles. Hilgard, opposing fragmentation of learning theory, has identified twenty principles from three different families of theories--Stimulus Response Theory, cognitive theory, and motivation and personality theory--that are potentially useful.

A. PRINCIPLES EMPHASIZED IN STIMULUS-RESPONSE THEORY

1. The learner should be an active, rather than a passive listener or viewer.

   To learn requires activity on the part of the learner.

2. Frequency of repetition is still important in acquiring skill, and for retention through overlearning.

3. Reinforcement is important; that is, in repetition, desirable or correct responses should be rewarded.

4. Generalization and discrimination suggest the importance of practice in varied contexts, so that learning will become (or remain) appropriate to a wider (or more restricted) range of stimuli.

   If you want people to be able to generalize from the specifics they have learned, then they must be given practice in a variety of learning situations.

5. Novelty in behavior can be enhanced through imitation of models, through cueing, through shaping, and is not inconsistent with a liberalized S-R approach.

6. Drive is important in learning, but all personal-social motives do not conform to the drive-reduction principles based on food-deprivation experiments.

7. Conflicts and frustrations arise inevitably in the process of learning difficult discriminations and in social situations in which irrelevant motives may be aroused. Hence we must recognize and provide for their resolution or accommodation.

Recognize that conflicts and frustrations occur when people have problems learning difficult information or practicing complex skills. Design your training so that learning follows a clear and understandable progression. Develop a learning climate within which people feel free to tell you when and how they are having problems. Plan sufficient time for digesting, practicing, and processing new or complex material.

---

*Hilgard, Earnest R., and Bower, Gordan H. Theories of Learning, 3rd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

B. PRINCIPLES EMPHASIZED IN COGNITIVE THEORY

1. The perceptual features of the problem given the learner are important conditions of learning--figure-ground relations, directional signs, sequence, organic interrelatedness. Hence a learning problem should be so structured and presented that the essential features are open to the inspection of the learner.

2. The organization of knowledge should be an essential concern of the teacher or educational planner so that the direction from simple to complex is not from arbitrary, meaningless parts to meaningful wholes, but instead from simplified wholes to more complex wholes.

   Present information in a clear, understandable sequence, beginning with the basic ideas that make up more complex concepts. Tell the learner what your goal is and how you expect to get there.

3. Learning is culturally relative, and both the wider culture and the subculture to which the learner belongs may affect his learning.

   Recognize the ways in which culture affects learning. Plan for this in your training design.

4. Cognitive feedback confirms correct knowledge and corrects faulty learning. The learner tries something provisionally and then accepts or rejects what he does on the basis of its consequences. This is, of course, the cognitive equivalent of reinforcement in S-R theory, but cognitive theory tends to place more emphasis upon a kind of hypothesis-testing through feedback.

   Allow time for people to tell you what they have learned. Give them feedback about what and how they are doing.

5. Goal-setting by the learner is important as motivation for learning and his success and failure determine how he sets future goals.

6. Divergent thinking, which leads to inventive problem solving or the creation of novel and valued products, is to be nurtured along with convergent thinking, which leads to logically correct answers.

   Reward creative thinking in addition to rewarding people for the "right" answers.

C. PRINCIPLES FROM MOTIVATION AND PERSONALITY THEORY

1. The learner's abilities are important, and provisions have to be made for slower and more rapid learners, as well as for those with specialized abilities.

   In designing training, take into account that people learn at different rates and in different styles.

2. Postnatal development may be as important as hereditary and congenital determiners of ability and interest. Hence the learner must be understood in terms of the influences that have shaped his development.

3. Learning is culturally relative, and both the wider culture and the subculture to which the learner belongs may affect his learning.

4. Anxiety level of the individual learner may determine the beneficial or detrimental effects of certain kinds of encouragements to learn.

   When people are learning new information or experimenting with new behaviors, a moderate level of tension is generated. This is normal. Trainers, however, need to be sensitive to individual learners, and flexible enough in their training styles to offer the learner the kind of environment that will be beneficial to him, given his anxiety level.

5. The same objective situation may tap appropriate motives for one learner and not for another, as, for example, in the contrast between those motivated by affiliation and those motivated by achievement.

   People have different needs; what motivates me may not motivate you. Don't base your training design on the assumption that all learners will be motivated to learn in the same way.

6. The organization of motives and values within the individual is relevant. Some long-range goals affect short-range activities. Thus college students of equal ability may do better in courses perceived as relevant to their majors than in those perceived as irrelevant.

   People learn what they perceive to be relevant to their needs and interests.

7. The group atmosphere of learning (competition vs. cooperation, authoritarianism vs. democracy, individual isolation vs. group identification) will affect satisfaction in learning as well as the products of learning.

   The training climate affects both what the participant feels about his learning and what he actually learned.

SELECTED READING I-2

THREE DOMAINS OF LEARNING

THREE DOMAINS OF LEARNING

According to the American Psychological Association, there are three domains of learning:

1. Cognitive or thinking domain
2. Affective or feeling domain
3. Psychomotor or behavioral domain. (Note that in this course we are using "psychomotor domain" in a broader sense than usual--as skill-building behavior rather than performing physical acts.)

THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN*

The cognitive domain can be broken into six categories: knowledge, comprehension, applications, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Knowledge refers to remembering facts, terms, and principles in the form that they were learned. It can be knowledge of ways of dealing with specifics (conventions, trends, sequences, classifications, categories, criteria, methodologies); or knowledge of universals or abstractions (principles, generalizations, theories, structures).

For example: "A plane is a machine that flies in the air," or "A passenger is a person who travels in a vehicle." (i.e., terminology.)

Comprehension means understanding material studied without necessarily relating it to other material. It can refer to translation, interpretation, or extrapolation.

For example: "Planes fly."

Application refers to using generalizations or other abstractions appropriately in concrete situations.

For example: "Planes carry passengers by air."

Analysis is the breaking down of material into its consistent parts. One can analyze elements, relationships, or organizational principles.

These categories of cognitive and affective domains were adapted from Bloom's taxonony from Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning, by B. S. Bloom, J. T. Hastings, and G. F. Madans, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1971. This article was reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

For example: The concept of "I can fly a plan to Chicago" can be broken down into:

"Planes fly in the air."
"Planes carry passengers to Chicago."
"I am a passenger."
"I can fly to Chicago in a plane."

Synthesis involves rearranging and combining concepts and principles into new patterns.

For example: "Planes fly by getting off the ground. To let ideas 'fly' we must encourage students to get their thinking 'off the ground.'"

Evaluation refers to judging the value of material for specified purposes. One can judge in terms of internal or external evidence.

For example: "Letting 'ideas fly' allows new ideas to be generated. This enhances the learning process; therefore, it is of positive value."

THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN*

The affective domain can be broken into five categories: receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization.

Receiving refers to the willing acceptance of stimuli.

For example: "He is willing to believe that planes fly."

Responding refers to interest in responding, the satisfaction derived from becoming involved with an act.

For example: "He feels that he would like to fly in a plane."

Valuing involves showing preference for selected activities, becoming committed. Concepts are seen to have worth.

For example: "He prefers to travel by air."

Organization involves the construction of a system of values.

For example: "The positive feelings about the comfort of flying, the time saved, etc., outweigh the negative feelings about high cost, inconvenience of getting to airports, etc."

Characterization refers to internalizing a value system, to acting consistently with attitudes that have become characteristic.

For example: "He travels by air rather than by train to New York."

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*See footnote, previous page.

THE PSYCHOMOTOR (BEHAVIORAL) DOMAIN*

The psychomotor domain is broken down into seven categories: perception, set, guided response, mechanism, complex overt response, adaptation, and origination.

Perception is the first step in performing an act. It is the process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations by way of the sense organs.

For example: "Passenger sees seatbelt."

Set is a preparatory adjustment or readiness for a particular kind of action or experience. It can involve mental preparation, physical preparation, or emotional preparation.

For example: "He listens to the stewardess explain why seatbelts are necessary."

Guided response can be broken down into imitation and trail and error. It emphasizes the development of abilities that are needed for a complex skill.

For example: "Stewardess demonstrates proper use of the seatbelt; passenger imitates her."

Mechanism is when learned response has become habitual. At this level the learner has achieved a certain confidence and proficiency.

For example: "Passenger enters airplane, sits down, and fastens seatbelt."

Complex overt response refers to the level at which the learner can perform a complex skill. The category can be divided into resolution of uncertainty and automatic performance.

(Since learning to put on a seatbelt is a simple manual skill, there is no example.)

Adaptation refers to the altering of activities to meet the demands of new problems.

For example: "As a result of using seatbelts on airplanes, the individual wears his seatbelt in the automobile."

Origination is the formulating of new ways of manipulating materials as a result of understanding, abilities, and skills developed in the psychomotor area.

---

*These categories were adapted from Bloom's taxonomy, by Elizabeth J. Simpson of the U.S. Office of Education in The Psychomotor Domain, Gryphon House, Washington, D.C., 1972. Reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

(Since this is a simple skill, there is no example here.)

This division helps the trainer identify the nature of a given task. Once the trainer knows whether a task is mostly thinking, feeling, or doing, he can select a method that will produce the kind of learning that is desired. While all three domains are involved in any learning act, one of them is usually primary.

For example: "Look at the different domains used in counseling activities:

Cognitive: You need to know counseling theory, to understand the "why's" of what you're doing. To learn concepts, it's important to talk about the ideas you're trying to absorb.

Affective: You also need to relate in a supportive way to your client, to gain his trust. Talking about your attitudes and the way you relate to a client is not enough; you must experience the supportive feeling and practice demonstrating it.

Behavioral: In your relationship with your client you need skills in giving verbal and nonverbal responses, i.e., when to walk over to a person, when not to, etc. Role playing and apprenticeship are called for here. You really have to learn through trial and error, since factors of judgment and timing and your personal style are involved.

SELECTED READING I-3

LEARNING AND TRAINING

LEARNING AND TRAINING

Learning is a process that takes place within the individual.

> Learning involves change. It is concerned with the acquisition of habits, knowledge, and attitudes. It enables the individual to make both personal and social adjustments. Since the concept of change is inherent in the concept of learning, any change in behavior implies that learning is taking place or has taken place. Learning that occurs during the process of change can be referred to as the learning process (Crow and Crow, 1963).
>
> Learning is shown by a change in behavior as a result of experience (Cronbach, 1963).
>
> . . . learning is precisely what training is all about. Training exists to bring about learning. Training is a . . . (structured process), a sequence of experiences, a series of opportunities to learn, in which the trainee is exposed in some more or less systematic way to certain materials or events. The trainee's behavior is supposed to be modified by means of this process so that after it is completed he behaves in some way that is different from the way he behaved before training. Training is what is done to the trainee (Folley, 1967).

Matthew Miles writes:

> . . . the learner needs to experiment and explore, try things out for himself, learn by doing, until he can behave appropriately. He must learn that . . . problems are not caused solely by the behavior of other people, and his own actions are a part of any problem situation. . .
>
> Such learning requires a "not-for-keeps" setting, because the learner must be free to be creative, to think provisionally, to make missteps, and to try out new ways of behaving without fear of the usual painful consequences of failure. When the usual constraints on the individual are temporarily lifted, the results can be dramatic. . . the "not-for-keeps" behavior is real--real enough to make for personal learning. Under these circumstances, a three-step process can be said to take place:
>
> 1. The learner enters a safe situation and, in a sense, "unfreezes," or relaxes, his usual set ways of behaving.
> 2. In the unfrozen, fluid state he creatively explores and tries out new behaviors.
> 3. He refreezes, or makes firm, the new behaviors as he moves back to the usual demands of the job situation.
>
> Most of us stay frozen most of the time, and training's biggest contribution is in making a temporary thaw not only possible, but safe and desirable (Miles, 1973).

Training is a series of structured learning experiences designed to help people change. Learning takes place at various levels. Learning experiences must be planned to fit the participants' level of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Generally, learning can be described as: (1) the amount of information, facts, or concepts that a person knows, (2) the skills that a person is able to use, and (3) the attitudes a person develops and imparts to others. Training should focus on one or all of these areas according to the participants' problems and needs.

> These three levels of learning must be considered if we are to achieve and maintain performance change as a result of a training and development activity. Those of us involved in the educational process should have performance improvement as a goal, rather than the mere acquisition of new words, gimmicks, or temporary responses that slip back into the same routine because change was not "fully" learned or reinforced. This is the challenge for all of us as we assess the needs of our organizations, design learning experiences, and evaluate the effect of our efforts (Lippitt, 1969).

SELECTED READING I-4

AN INTRODUCTION TO ANDRAGOGY: A PROCESS FOR ADULT LEARNING

AN INTRODUCTION TO ANDRAGOGY: A PROCESS FOR ADULT LEARNING

GENERAL PURPOSE

The aim of this chapter is to establish a learning climate or spirit of mutual inquiry that is basic to the andragogical approach. The reader is invited to enter the process by considering some of the challenges posed to adult educators and trainers by the circumstances of life today. The reader is also invited to consider the need for a new educational process for adults arising from the challenges of the present and to review some of the circumstances and conditions that differentiate adult learning (Andragogy) and child learning (Pedagogy). In addition, some information will be provided on the origin and meaning of the term "Andragogy" and on the growth and development of this new educational approach. The chapter concludes with a brief outline of the basic elements of the andragogical process itself.

CHALLENGES FOR EDUCATORS AND TRAINERS OF ADULTS

We are living in an age of rapid and accelerating change; an age of new discoveries and knowledge, new theories and methods, new problems and solutions. Alvin Toffler recently warned that this increase in the pace and complexity of life is likely to produce a state of cultural shock or paralysis brought about by an "overabundance of choice" (Toffler, 1970). The evidence indicates that this warning cannot be lightly dismissed. It seems that we must find ways to improve our ability to choose quickly and accurately what we really want and need. Furthermore, we must learn how to make these kinds of decisions and carry them out in interaction with others who are affected by them. These concerns raise questions about the goals and purposes of education, of human and organizational development and of training. One purpose of this guide is to explore some of these questions and suggest some tentative answers. Another is to review some specific methods that have been proven effective by experience.

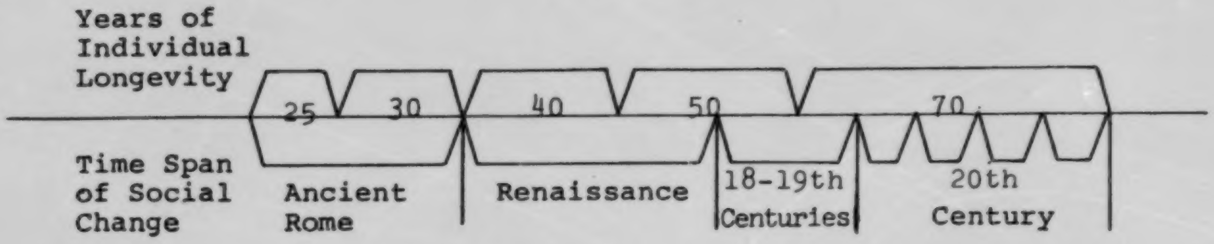
THE CHANGING PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

Most educational theories have been based on the belief that the fundamental purpose of education is the transmission of the totality of human knowledge from one generation to the next.

From A Trainer's Guide to Andragogy, by J.D. Ingalls. Reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

This is probably a workable assumption provided that two conditions are present: first, that the quantity of knowledge is small enough to be collectively managed by the educational system; and second, that the rate of change occurring in the culture or society is slow enough to enable the deposit of knowledge to be packaged and delivered before it changes. Both conditions have disappeared in modern times. We are now living in a period of knowledge explosion in which the rate of cultural change (e.g., the introduction of new technology and new social mores, sudden population growth and mobility, changes in basic institutions such as marriage and the family, etc.) is so rapid that we are living through three or four different cultural periods in a life span of 70 to 80 years. The diagram below presents this picture graphically:

The Relationship of the Time Span of Social
and Cultural Change to Individual Life Span



This increase in the rate and quantity of change in society leads to a question of doubt concerning the viability of the "transmittal theory" of education. Instead of trying to transmit all of what is known, perhaps our purpose could be "to stimulate in the learner a desire to engage in a lifelong process of discovering what he needs to know." If this redefinition is tentatively acceptable, we may look at two consequences that follow from it. First, education would no longer be primarily or exclusively an activity for children; and second, the responsibility for deciding what is to be taught and learned would tend to shift increasingly away from the teacher and toward the learner. Education, as a lifelong process of continuing discovery and growth, could thus satisfy our need to relate in a positive and personal way to our own changing experience.

Three additional considerations add impetus to the idea of education as a continuing activity beyond childhood.

Living Itself is Educational Experience

The ancient Chinese philosopher Confucius expressed his belief in the importance of learning from experience when he wrote:

> "I hear and I forget
> I see and I remember
> I do and I understand"

Confucius related the acquisition of understanding and knowledge directly to living and experiencing. "I do and I understand." The process of education, looked at in its broadest sense can be considered to be operating all the time, during all conscious human activity. It does not stop at graduation! Everything we do involves some kind of learning. Reflecting on the past, acting in the present, planning for the future, all clearly suggest the fundamental process of learning by doing. Possibly we do not look at all of life as a "learning experience" or a "learning situation." Perhaps our orientation restricts our thinking about education as that taking place only within the narrow confines of a formal classroom. But whether we wish to recognize it or not, the fact remains that we are learning all the time. Perhaps what we really need is an educational process that will help us to generate meaning and knowledge from our life situation in a way that we can utilize all of our activities as "potential for learning." In that way, even our mistakes can be valued as providing information leading to change and growth. Continuous learning from the experience of life, then, is an important focus for adults in today's world.

Education and the Resolution of Social Conflicts

It seems that social problems today are bigger and more serious than ever: crime, poverty, social and racial unrest, and drug addiction are rampant. There seems to be a greater need today than ever before for the late Dr. Kurt Lewin's prescription for resolving social conflicts through reeducation (Lewin, 1948). Lewin demonstrated that processes for the acquisition of normal and abnormal social behavior are fundamentally alike. He proved that inadequate visual images (incorrect stereotypes or illusions) are formed in exactly the same way as adequate visual images (reality). The importance of this clarification cannot be overestimated. If we accept the fact that our perception of reality may at any time be correct or incorrect, but that it is always visualized by ourselves as correct, and if we also recognize that it is our perceptions of reality that steer or direct our actions, we can at last understand the basis of socially divergent behavior and begin to develop corrective experiences to resolve those conflicts brought about by the divergence between social illusions and reality.

Lewin called this method of dealing with divergent perceptions a process of reeducation. He described reeducation as a process that effects not only changes in cognitive structure (facts, concepts, beliefs expectations) but also changes in values (attractions and aversions and feelings of acceptance and status). Reeducation, to be effective, must go much deeper than the level of verbal expression, It involves a transition from old values and ideas to new ones, together with the internalization of the new behavior, which, in turn, reinforces the new values.

Lewin specified two conditions as absolute prerequisites for successful reeducation. First, individuals must become actively involved with others in discovering the inadequacies in their present situation and work together to discover paths leading to improvement; and second, there must be an implicit guarantee of freedom for each group member to accept or reject the new values or cognitive structure.

The process of reeducation in pointing the way toward the resolution of social conflicts becomes the second important focus for the continuing education of adults.

A Process for Learning How to Learn

Together with learning from our own experience, and working with others to bring about reeducation and the resolution of social conflicts, we also need to understand and master the process of learning itself.

While we can always find someone who is an "expert" on something, for the most part, teachers are not generally available to us as they were when we were children. We are expected to be capable of performing our various social and organizational roles, and if we cannot, the consequences are often personally hurtful, as well as detrimental to the organizations for which we work. The time pressures of daily living may also make it relatively impossible for us to pursue formal educational activities as adults; hence, we need a process for learning how to learn on our own. In order to build a foundation for developing this process, it may be helpful to look at some important differences in the conditions of adult and child learning.

ANDRAGOGY AND PEDAGOGY--A CHOICE OF PERSPECTIVES

Dr. Malcolm Knowles has clarified the differences between adult and child learning in his book, *The Modern Practice of Adult Education*, 1970. Knowles does not suggest any fundamental difference between the way adults and children "learn" (i.e, internalize new information), but he does point to significant differences that stem from the conditions surrounding adult and child learning and differences that emerge in the learning process as various degrees of maturation emerge. Dr. Knowles writes as follows:

> "Most of what is known about learning has been derived from studies of learning in children and animals. Most of what is known about teaching has been derived from experience with teaching children under conditions of compulsory attendance. And most theories about the learning/teaching transaction are based on the definition of education as a process of transmitting the culture. From these theories and assumptions there has emerged the technology of "Pedagogy"--a term derived from the Greek stem *paid-* (meaning "child") and *agogos* (meaning "leading"). So "Pedagogy" means, specifically, the art and science of teaching children.
>
> One problem is that somewhere in history, the "children" part of the definition got lost. In many people's minds--and even in the dictionary--"Pedagogy" is defined as the art and science of teaching. Period. Even in books on adult education you can find references to "the Pedagogy of adult education," without any apparent discomfort over the contradiction in terms. Indeed, in my estimation, the main reason why adult education has not achieved the impact on our civilization of which it is capable is that most teachers of adults have only known how to teach adults as if they were children." (Knowles, 1970)

There are four basic concepts around which differences between Andragogy and Pedagogy can be illuminated. They serve as reference points for reflecting on the different emphases in the learning/teaching transaction inherent in these two educational approaches.

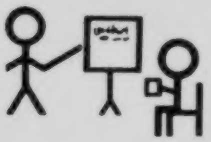
Self-Concept

The self-concept of a child is that of being a dependent person. As children move toward adulthood, they become increasingly aware of being capable of making decisions for themselves. At the same time, they experience a deep need for others to see them as being capable of self-direction. This change from a self-concept of dependency to one of autonomy is what we mean when we say a person has achieved psychological maturity or adulthood. Because of this, adults tend to resent being put into situations that violate their self-concept of maturity, such as being treated with a lack of respect, being talked down to, being judged and otherwise being treated like children. Because so many of our educational or training environments have been influenced by traditional pedagogical practices, adults tend to come into educational or training programs expecting to be treated like children and prepared to allow the teacher to take responsibility for their learning. When adults discover that they are capable of self-direction in learning, as they are in other activities of their lives, they often experience a remarkable increase of motivation to learn and a strong desire to continue the learning process.

There are several implications for the creation of a self-directing adult learning environment that follow from the ideas stated above. As this guide is developed, these implications will be treated in depth. The first major difference between Andragogy and Pedagogy exists in the relationship between teacher and learner and in the learner's concept of himself with regard to his capacity for self-direction.

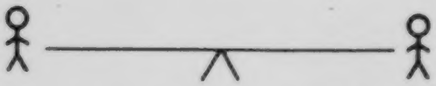
Dominant Teacher

Dependent Learner



A directing relationship

Reciprocity in the Teaching/Learning Transaction



A helping relationship

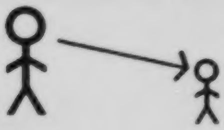
Experience

Adults, in the course of living, have accumulated vast quantities of experience of differing kinds. It is safe to say that "we are our experience." Our experience is what we have done; i.e., the sum total of our life's impressions and our interaction with other persons and the world. Children, on the other hand, are relatively new to experience; "experience is what happens to them" and many patterns of experience have simply not occurred frequently enough for them to have become familiar, safe, or generally predictable.

In the andragogical approach to education, the experience of adults is valued as a rich resource for learning. In the tradition of Pedagogy, however, the tendency has been to regard the experience of children as being of little worth in the educational process. It is probably for this reason that the methodology of Pedagogy has been up to this point at least, largely oriented toward "one way communication techniques": lectures, assigned readings, and audiovisual presentations.

Andragogy, on the other hand, abounds with "experiential," two-way and multidirectional techniques, such as group discussion, simulation, and role playing, buzz groups, team designing, skill practice sessions, and so on. In this way, the experiences of all participants can be utilized as resources for learning. When students function as teachers and learners at the same time, utilizing their experiences to facilitate the learning process, the second major difference between Andragogy and Pedagogy becomes apparent.

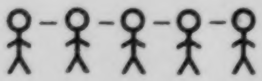
One-way communication
given by



Teacher to Learner

Experience of the teacher valued as the primary resource for learning

Multicommunication
shared by all



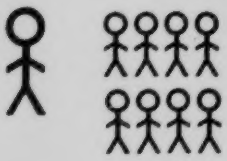
A community of
Learners and Teachers

Experience of all valued as resources for learning

Readiness to Learn

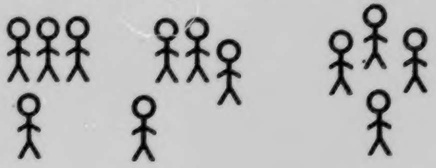
Educators are quite familiar with the concept "readiness to learn" and "teachable moment." It is well known that educational development occurs best through a sequencing of learning activities into developmental tasks so that the learner is presented with opportunities for learning certain topics or activities when he is "ready" to assimilate them, but not before. It is obvious for example that learning arithmetic has to precede learning trigonometry, or that learning the meaning of basic words has to precede reading history. The main task of pedagogical curriculum development lies in dealing with sequencing and interrelating of subjects and skill-building activities to meet the requirements of competency for graduation. Adults, however, have largely completed the requirements of basic education by developing competency in reading, writing, arithmetic, and speech (unless their education has been retarded by social or economic factors). Their development tasks are increasingly related to the social roles that form their immediate concerns: working, living, raising a family, enjoying art, music, recreational activities, and so on. As we adults move through life from early adulthood through middle-age and into later maturity, we experience many different "teachable moments" called forth by the needs of our social situation. The third difference between Andragogy and Pedagogy can be inferred from the process used in choosing the learning content. In traditional Pedagogy, the teacher decides both the content (what will be learned) and assumes responsibility for the process of choosing (how and when the learning will take place). In Andragogy, the grouping of learners is brought about in direct relation to the individual interests and learning needs identified by the learners themselves. The learners decide what they need to learn based on their own perception of the demands of their social situation. The facilitator of andragogical learning acts as a resource person to help the learners form interest groups and diagnose their learning needs. In doing this the facilitator may provide some structure by suggesting kinds of competencies needed to perform various roles or functions or he may suggest several areas of interest into which learners may wish to group themselves to begin this diagnostic process.

Learners are grouped
by grade and class



Teacher makes curriculum
decisions for the Learners

Learners group themselves
according to interests



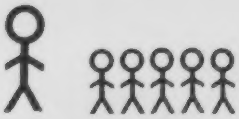
Facilitator helps Learners
to diagnose learning needs

Time Perspective and Orientation to Learning

We are used to thinking of education in terms of "preparation for the future" rather than "doing in the present." When we were children, we were involved in the educational process of storing up information for use on some far-off day, following graduation. Our teachers presented us with information neatly packaged into subjects that we could unwrap as needed on our journey through life. Graduation seemed to be a sort of ceremonial "rite of passage" from the learning world into the "doing world" in which there was a strong implication that the learning world was left behind. But if we agree with Confucius, that all living is learning, we can see that learning is not only preparation for living, but the very essence of living itself. When I am actively thinking, doing, reflecting on my experience, discussing it with others, practicing and learning new skills for improvement and using them, I am, in fact, using most of the abilities that differentiate humans from other forms of animal life.

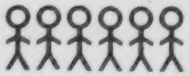
In the andragogical approach to education, learning is "problem centered" rather than "subject centered." Andragogy is a process for problem finding and problem solving in the present; it is an orientation to the discovery of an improvable situation, a desired goal, a corrective experience, or a developmental possibility in relation to the reality of the present situation. To discover "where we are now" and "where we want to go" is the heart of the andragogical approach to education. When coupled with the process of evaluation as a description for "where have we been" and "where are we now," we can take positive steps to action within a realistic framework of possibility.

Teachers as curators of knowledge of the past



Grouping and classifying information into subjects to be studied now for use "someday"

Problem finding/problem solving teams



Learning by working on today's problems today

Two clarifications must be made at this point with regard to both Andragogy and Pedagogy. First, many developments in the field of children's education in recent years have tended to make it more andragogical. For example, the use of experiential learning techniques, the enhancement of collaborative skill development through group methods and the recognition of cultural and ethnic differences, etc. Secondly, in suggesting that andragogical learning concentrates on the "here and now" situation we do not mean to imply any disdain for the knowledge of the past. What we are suggesting is that adults are much more likely to be motivated to investigate subject areas when they have a "need to know" as the result of experiencing a present problem situation or learning need.

AN EMERGING TECHNOLOGY FOR ADULT LEARNING

How did Andragogy begin? Where did the name come from? Has anyone heard of it outside the United States? These questions are examples of those frequently asked by people first exposed to andragogical education or training.

The name Andragogy (or Andragology) derives from a combination of the classical Greek noun *agoge* (the activity of leading) with the stem *andr* (adult). Andragogy is thus defined as the art and science of leading adult learning (or helping adults learn). The word was first used by a German grammar school teacher, Alexander Kapp, in 1833, to describe the education theory of the Greek philosopher, Plato. Kapp distinguished Andragogy from Social Pedagogy (basic remedial education for disadvantaged or handicapped adults) referring to Andragogy as the normal and natural process of continuing education for adults.

The development of Andragogy seems to have been much more rapid in Europe than in the United States. In the Netherlands, there are at present seven major universities granting degrees with Andragogy as the major specialization. A similar development has occurred in Germany, Poland, Hungary, and in particular, Yugoslavia, where several universities are offering programs leading to the doctorate. Andragogy is becoming known in France, England, and in South America. Professor Malcolm Knowles of Boston University introduced Andragogy to the United States and is internationally recognized for his creative developmental work in this new field (Van Enckevort, 1971).

While Andragogy has been emerging as a new educational process for adults, closely related discoveries have been and are being made in the fields of management and organizational development and also in the fields of counselling, psychotherapy and social psychology. Andragogy is a unifying educational process that can help adults discover and use the findings of these related fields in social settings and educational situations to stimulate the growth and health of individuals, organizations, and communities.

In fact, the European andragogues consider "social case work, counselling, resocialization processes, social group work, adult education, personnel management, community organization, and community development, etc." (Van Enckevort, 1971) to all be parts of applied Andragogy. Andragogy is seen in this sense to be the "process" through which the differing "content" of the above mentioned fields or activities can be learned and applied.

THE ANDRAGOGICAL PROCESS

The development, organization, and administration of programs in applied Andragogy involve continuous circular application of the following seven steps. These seven steps are:

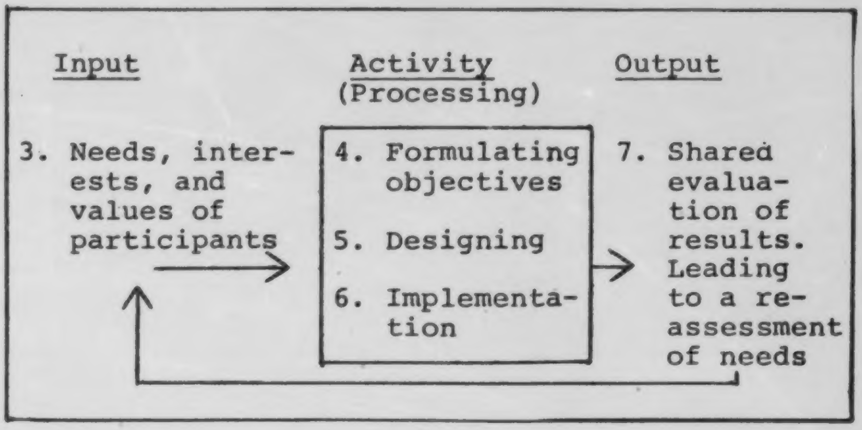
- Setting a climate for learning
- Establishing a structure for mutual planning
- Assessing interests, needs and values
- Formulating objectives
- Designing learning activities

* Implementing learning activities
* Evaluating results (reassessing needs, interests and values

The seven-step process of Andragogy can be graphically described in terms compatible with "general systems theory." (von Bertalanffy, 1968) Andragogy may be viewed as a learning systems model that uses a "feedback loop." It is in this sense that it can be considered to be a continuous development process for adult learning.

Organization

1. A climate for learning
2. A structure for mutual planning


Input
Activity (Processing)
Output
3. Needs, interests, and values of participants
4. Formulating objectives
5. Designing
6. Implementation
7. Shared evaluation of results. Leading to a reassessment of needs

The primary function of the teacher (or facilitator) in an andragogical activity is that of managing or guiding the andragogical process itself, rather than managing the "content" of the learning as in traditional Pedagogy. The content of andragogical learning can thus be highly variable, based on the resources and interests of the learners and the needs of the institutions and organizations of which they are a part. While the facilitator need not be an "expert" in the learning content, it is most desirable for him to have some "content" knowledge if he is to guide the "process" effectively.

Now we can see that Andragogy meets the conditions for continuing educational activity for adults:

* It is a way to learn directly from our experience.
* It is a process of reeducation that can reduce. social conflicts through interpersonal activity in learning groups.
* It is a process of self-directed learning from which we can continuously reassess our own learning needs as they emerge from the demands of the changing situation.

In the next chapter, we will explore in detail the organizational issues of climate setting and building a structure for mutual planning that are necessary to begin an andragogical learning activity.

MODULE II

MODULE II: SMALL GROUP PROCESS--THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT **TIME:** 2 HOURS 35 MINUTES

GOALS

- To increase knowledge of groups and their processes
- To increase awareness of the leader/trainer role at various stages of a group's life
- To organize a means of observing, analyzing, and interpreting group processes.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- List at least five elements of dynamics through which group process can be observed
- Describe the relationship between group maturity and the kind of leadership generally needed at each stage
- Identify three role functions group members can play
- Define the following terms:
    - Content
    - Process
    - Group
    - Group process
    - Group elements
    - Member elements
- Diagnose the stage of growth of their own group
- List elements and dynamics common to most groups
- Observe and identify elements and dynamics during a simulated group activity.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET II-1
GROUP GROWTH DETERMINATION
(FOR EXERCISE II-1)

PURPOSE:

To gain a general picture of the perceptions which various group members have about the group and its growth during its initial stage.

MATERIALS:

Group Growth Questionnaire

PROCEDURE:

1. Fill out the Group Growth Questionnaire that appears on the following page.
2. Jot down notes on perceptions you have about the group, if any, beyond what is covered on the questionnaire.

TIME:

5-10 minutes

THE GROUP GROWTH

As a group begins its life and at several points during its growth, the leader and members might individually fill out the following scales and then spend some time sharing the data that are collected. Through these scales, it is possible to get a general picture of the perceptions which various members have about the group and how it is growing. It is also possible to pick up areas in which there may be some difficulties which are blocking progress.

1. How clear are the group goals?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
No apparent goals	Goal confusion, uncertainty, or conflict	Average goal clarity	Goals mostly clear	Goals very clear

2. How much trust and openness in the group?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Distrust, a closed group	Little trust, defensiveness	Average trust and openness	Considerable trust and openness	Remarkable trust and openness

3. How sensitive and perceptive are group members?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
No awareness or listening in the group	Most members self-absorbed	Average sensitivity and listening	Better than usual listening	Outstanding sensitivity to others

4. How much attention was paid to process? (The way the group was working?)

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
No attention to process	Little attention to process	Some concern with group process	A fair balance between content and process	Very concerned with process

Worksheet II-1, Continued

5. How were group leadership needs met?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Not met, drifting	Leadership concentrated in one person	Some leadership sharing	Leadership functions distributed	Leadership needs met creatively and flexibly

6. How were group decisions made?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
No decisions could be reached	Made by a few	Majority vote	Attempts at integrating minority vote	Full participation and tested consensus

7. How well were group resources used?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
One or two contributed, but deviants silent	Several tried to contribute, but were discouraged	Average use of group resources	Group resources well used and encouraged	Group resources fully and effectively used

8. How much loyalty and sense of belonging to the group?

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Members had no group loyalty or sense of belonging	Members not close but some friendly relations	About average sense of belonging	Some warm sense of belonging	Strong sense of belonging among members

9. Other dimensions ____________________

____

____

WORKSHEET II-2
ELEMENTS AND DYNAMICS OF THE SMALL GROUP
(FOR EXERCISE II-2)

PURPOSE:

To develop a list of group dynamics or elements that participants would want to observe in order to facilitate the group's process toward reaching training gaols.

MATERIALS:

Flip chart or newsprint
Easel/tape
Felt-tip markers

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. Appoint a recorder.
2. Brainstorm a list of individual and interpersonal behaviors that can be seen in a working group.

SCENARIO

It is the 4th day of a 5-day training event for generic TOT.

You are five participants who came to the TOT with varying backgrounds, training experience, cultural differences, and so on. At this very moment, you have just been formed into a subgroup, charged with the task of designing and developing a 30-minute learning piece on giving feedback or on the issue of why people take drugs.

This is to be a group effort. It is up to the group to design and develop exactly what they wish to present.

Instructions:

1. Following is an outline of five roles. Each participant should select the role that he or she can most easily play. The small group as a whole can take part in this.

ROLE 1	You are forceful and aggressive. You tend to cause a lot of tension in the group. You aren't necessarily the one to come up with ideas, but you often shoot down the ideas of others. If you feel unappreciated, you tend to try to get the group off the track by going off the subject.
ROLE 2	You are on the timid side, often silent in a group. Generally, however, you remain aware of what is going on and are involved. Every now and then, you express what you think group members are experiencing.
ROLE 3	You are a compromiser. In most groups you fulfill task roles, initiate activity, elaborate on the ideas of others, and coordinate and summarize. You tend to be supportive and agreeable.
ROLE 4	You can be aggressive although it is not a side of yourself you generally show. You are known to take the part of anyone whom you feel needs help or has been treated unfairly. However, you try to be fair and to help solve problems and fulfill tasks.
ROLE 5	You are full of ideas. You like recognition from other group members. You generally find one or two people that become enemies.

2. Once each participant has selected a role, he or she should take a few minutes to think about how to carry it out. A good way to do this is to exaggerate one's own natural traits, or choose traits with which you are very familiar.

3. Pin the number corresponding to your role where it will be visible to observers.

4. Assume that the discussion has been in progress for at least 20 minutes. One person might begin with a summary of what has occurred.

5. Begin.

WORKSHEET 11-3: PROBLEM SOLVING
(FOR EXERCISE 11-2)

	0				3'				6'			9'
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
How well did the group stick to its job?												
How clearly did the group understand its problem?												
How well did the group get information?												
How well did the group use the information?												
How well did they test for agreement?												
How well did they accommodate for differences among members?												
How well were the communications conducted?												

At the end 3', 6', and 9', you are to rate the discussion group on each of the seven categories according to scale.

1 = not at all

2 = fairly well

3 = well

4 = very well

WORKSHEET II-4: BEHAVIOR OBSERVATION CHART
(FOR EXERCISE II-2)

As you watch the group at work, make tally marks (e.g., |||| ||) when you see behaviors which fit in to each of the categories. Jot down examples if you like.

Types of Behavior	0	3'	6'	9'
Fight behavior: attacking, being aggressive, ridiculing, showing negative feeling. Examples:				
Flight (non-participation) behavior: avoiding the problem, withdrawing, joking, going off the point, over-intellectualizing. Examples:				
Pairing behavior: being warm and friendly, intimate, supportive, agreeable. (Watch for opposite of this too--being impersonal, aloof, cold, and so on.) Examples:				
Dependency behavior: looking to the leader for support or direction; heavy reliance on structuring and defining of devices and procedures. (Watch for opposite too--rebellion, denial of need for structure.) Examples:				

WORKSHEET II-4 (CONTINUED)

0 3' 6' 9

Types of Behavior			
Work behavior: acting on the problems facing the group in a problem-solving way. Examples:			
Good communication patterns: descriptive feedback given, congruence between verbal and nonverbal behavior, appropriate listening, multi-directed communicatiions.			
Poor communication patterns: evaluative feedback given, lack of congruence between verbal and nonverbal behavior, little listening, restrictive channels of communications.			

WORKSHEET II-5: ROLE OBSERVATION CHART
(FOR EXERCISE II-2)

Categorize each statement made by role player into one or more of the roles listed. Write the number of the speaker every time a role is identified. List other roles played by any participants, particularly any roles that hinder the group's process. There is a time scale at the top so that the numbers can be put down in appropriate time sequence.

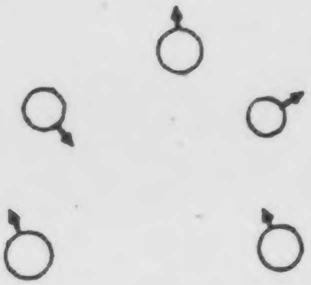
ROLES	0 to 3'	3' to 6'	6' to 9'
Task Roles			
Initiating activity			
Seeking information			
Seeking opinion			
Giving information			
Elaborating/Building			
Coordinating			
Summarizing			
Group Maintenance Roles			
Encouraging			
Gate keeping			
Following			
Expressing the group feeling			

WORKSHEET II-5 (CONTINUED)

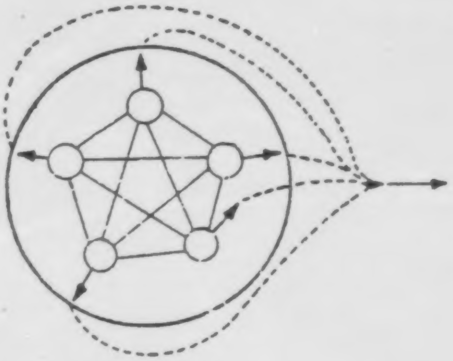
ROLES	0 to 3'	3' to 6'	6' to 9'
Task and Group Roles			
Evaluating			
Diagnosing			
Testing for consensus			
Mediating			
Relieving tension			
Negative Roles			

REFERENCE SHEET II-1: INTRODUCTION TO GROUP PROCESS AND FUNCTIONS

THE ESSENTIAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN A COLLECTION OF INDIVIDUALS AND A GROUP (Knowles & Knowles, 1972)



A Collection of Individuals



A Group

In a collection of individuals that is not a group--

- there are no shared goals (the goal arrows of the various individuals are pointing in different directions);
- there is no boundary around the collection (indicating a lack of consciousness as a group and undefinable membership);
- there are no lines of interaction and interdependence connecting the individuals (the collection is unable to act in a unitary manner).

A collection of individuals becomes a group of people when--

- the members think of themselves as a group and they have an identifiable membership;
- they share a common purpose;
- each member's contributions are valued;
- an open and trusting climate develops;
- the members pay attention to how they work together
- the members can, when they choose to, act together as a single entity.

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SELECTED READING II-1

SMALL GROUP PROCESS

SMALL GROUP PROCESS

What is "group process?" Process is an abstract idea; it implies a change in structure over a period of time. Group processes are the verbal and nonverbal behaviors among group members--how things are happening, rather than what is being talked about. Whether the members of a group are discussing training design or the difference between jet and piston engines, certain processes basic to all groups are taking place.

For example, the goal or task of the group must be understood and agreed upon. Members must understand each others' ideas. Problem solving and decision-making must be systematic to avoid wasted discussion time. As they become acquainted with each other, group members must develop mutually-supportive relationships. These group processes are a continuing part of group interaction, and do not happen only when the trainer decides to "use the group process" (Miles, 1973).

FUNCTIONS OF THE GROUPS

Groups exist for a variety of reasons and have different methods of pursuing their purposes. Often, several of the functions described below are performed within one kind of group. For example, an educational group may impart information and give practice in skill acquisition. Rarely does a group concern itself with a single function. These functions of groups are:

- Imparting information. A group performing this function emphasizes passing information among group members, or between a resource person and the group.
- Skill acquisition. A group concerned with this function emphasizes the acquiring of abilities. While an information imparting group, as described above, would stress the knowledge of theories or techniques, a skills acquisition group focuses on the practical application of this information. An example of this kind of group is a workshop where participants learn and practice new counseling techniques.
- Actualization. This group function focuses on the members themselves. It stresses feelings, awareness, and self-expression. Consciousness-raising groups and groups practicing values clarification are two examples of actualization.
- Setting objectives. The focus of this kind of function is on choice and commitment--on making a decision. The group is choosing among alternatives in order to take a stand, develop a policy, or select a specific direction of action. An example of setting objectives is when a group passes judgment on recommendations of a subcommittee. This information is adapted from A Manual for Group Facilitation--Center for Conflict Resolution.
- Task performance. A task group is one whose function is to do a job, whether it be a specific job (develop a new curriculum for a new school) or a general job (increase public understanding of pollution). The first three

kinds of functions are education; the fourth kind of function (setting objectives) involves characteristics of both educational and task groups.

Dividing lines between these categories are not always sharp. A group's purpose may vary from meeting to meeting, or may involve a combination of the above types. For instance, a committee appointed by a mayor to recommend guidelines for developing youth programs in the city may act first as an information-imparting group as it studies existing programs. It may resemble an actualization group when members try to identify and understand human needs. It is setting objectives when it selects which needs are most relevant and what programs are most worth supporting. Finally, it is a task group as it prepares a proposal to return to the mayor. As you plan for facilitation, it is valuable to keep in mind the functions of the group you will be working with.

CONTENT VS. PROCESS

What the group is talking about is content. How the group is handling its communication, i.e., who talks how much or who talks to whom, is group process.

Most topics about the back-home situation emphasize the content: "what is good leadership?"; "how can I motivate my subordinate?"; and "how can we make meetings more effective?" These topics concern issues which are there and then in the sense of being abstract, future, or past-oriented and not involving us directly. What the group does in the here and now, and how it is working in the sense of its present procedures and organization, is a group process focus.

In fact, the content of the conversation is often a good clue to what process issue may be on people's minds when participants find it difficult to confront an issue directly. For example:

	Content	Process
1.	Talking about problems of authority back home may mean...	that there is a leadership struggle going on in the group.
2.	Talking about how bad group meetings usually are at the plant may mean...	that members are dissatisfied with the performance of their own group.
3.	Talking about staff who don't really help anybody may mean...	dissatisfaction with the trainer's role in the group.

At a simpler level, looking at process really means focusing on what is going on in the group, trying to understand it in terms of other things that have gone on in the group.

SELECTED READING II-2

THE GROUP LIFE CHART

The Group Life Chart*

THE GROUP LIFE CHART:* PROCESS ELEMENTS

GROUP	MEMBER	CONTEXTUAL
INTERACTION PATTERN:** The pattern of interpersonal behavior and communication among members	**BEHAVIOR STYLE:** How the member tends to behave and communicate while in the group	**PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL CONTACTS:** The pattern of behavior and communication outside the group with group members or others
GROUP EMOTION: The predominant mood or feeling in the group; the feeling relations among members	**PERSONAL FEELING STATE:** The needs, drives, urges being experienced	**EMOTIONAL RELATIONS:** The type and quality of the feeling relations between group members and outsiders
GROUP NORMS:** The set of shared ideas about how members, as a group, should feel and behave while in the group	**INTERNALIZED NORMS:** The degree to which a member incorporates the group norms into his own system	**CONTRACTUAL RELATIONS:** Relationships between group members and outsiders (spouses, children, parents, employers, etc.) which have obligations attached
GROUP CULTURE: The collectively defined preferences and standard operating procedures for working in the group	**BELIEFS AND VALUES:** Explicit and implicit definitions of reality; preferences for given ideas, philosophies, world views	**CULTURAL INTERCHANGE:** Feelings about the way group membership is perceived by others; how the group culture can/does interact with the outside world
GROUP LEADERSHIP:** The group's capabilities for developing consciousness; how group leadership is defined and regarded; feelings of members toward the leader and his feelings toward them	**EGO:** The person's capabilities for assessing realities; his strengths, genetic endowment, self-concept; how he feels about himself; his ability to plan and his change potential; intrapsychic events	**FREEDOM-CONTROL RELATIONS:** How members interact with outside authority figures; degree of dependence on the outside world for nurturance, safety, etc.

*Adapted from Mills (1967) by Banet (1974)

**Banet's titles are Interaction System, Normative System and Executive System

This article was reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

A. *Group elements* are the phenomena that occur within the group.

1. The *interaction pattern* is the pattern of interpersonal communication and behavior among members; it is how interaction happens in the group.

2. The *group emotion* is the tone of feeling within the group, the emotional climate.

3. *Group norms* reflect the shared attitudes about how members should feel, think, and behave.

4. The *group culture*, as distinguished from the set of group norms, refers to the degree of formality or informality existing in the group, including group preferences and standard operating procedures.

5. *Group leadership* refers to how leadership is defined, and whether leadership functions are shared within the group, to members' feelings about and perceptions of the leader, and to the leader's feelings about and perceptions of group members. The group's capacity to take responsibility for its own functioning is also part of the group leadership.

B. *Member elements* are process events that are generated by individuals while they are in the group.

1. A member's *behavior style* includes his methods of verbal and nonverbal communication and his tendencies toward self-disclosure or self-protection.

2. The *personal feeling state* includes the needs, drives or urges that a member experiences while in the group.

3. *Internalized norms* refer to the set of group "shoulds" incorporated by the individual member.

4. *Beliefs and values* reflect an individual's convictions about reality.

5. The *ego* refers to an individual's capacity for assessing reality, diagnosing his current situation, and altering his style, habits, feelings, and beliefs according to new circumstances.

C. *Contextual elements* refer to a member's relationships outside of the group.

1. *Physical and social contacts* refer to interactions with persons (group members or others) outside the group setting.

2. *Emotional relations* refer to an individual's feelings about emotional relationships with group members or others outside the group.

3. *Contractual relations* are relationships with obligations attached: with spouse, children, parents, employers, or legal authorities.

4. *Cultural interchange* refers to the member's position in his culture--whether he feels included, excluded, or alienated--and how he feels his membership in the group is viewed by others outside the group. It also refers to the relationship between the culture of the outside environment, and to an individual's inclusion in an outside group that could influence his or another's behavior within the group.

5. *Freedom-control relations* represent a member's attitudes toward authority and responsibility and the influences these have on his and others' behavior.

D. Perceptions of the Group Process

1. Trainers must be able to identify and focus on those process elements that are most important for achieving the group's purpose. Depending on the type of group, various process elements are of greater or lesser importance.

2. For example, since the purpose of the psychoanalytic therapy group is to help each individual member change his behavior in the "real" world, the group leader would focus on the following elements:*

THE GROUP LIFE CHART:* PROCESS ELEMENTS

GROUP	MEMBER	CONTEXTUAL
INTERACTION PATTERN: The pattern of interpersonal behavior and communication among members	BEHAVIOR STYLE: How the member tends to behave and communicate while in the group	PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL CONTACTS: The pattern of behavior and communication outside the group with group members or others
	PERSONAL FEELING STATE: The needs, drives, urges being experienced	EMOTIONAL RELATIONS: The type and quality of the feeling relations between group members and outsiders
	INTERNALIZED NORMS: The degree to which a member incorporates the group norms into his own system	CONTRACTUAL RELATIONS: Relationships between group members and outsiders (spouses, children, parents, employers, etc.) which have obligations attached
	BELIEFS AND VALUES: Explicit and implicit definitions of reality; preferences for given ideas, philosophies, world views	CULTURAL INTERCHANGE: Feelings about the way group membership is perceived by others; how the group culture can/does interact with the outside world
	EGO: The person's capabilities for assessing realities; his strengths, genetic endowment, self-concept; how he feels about himself; his ability to plan and his change potential; intrapsychic events	FREEDOM-CONTROL RELATIONS: How members interact with outside authority figures; degree of dependence on the outside world for nurturance, safety, etc.

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*Adapted from Banet, 1974.

3. Another example involves the Assessment Interviewing for Treatment Planning (AITP) course. The purpose of AITP is to train counselors in the use of a focused, well-organized interview to gather information needed to develop a client's treatment plan.

   The trainer would focus on:

GROUP	MEMBER	CONTEXTUAL
INTERACTION PATTERN: The pattern of interpersonal behavior and communication among members	**BEHAVIOR STYLE:** How the member tends to behave and communicate while in the group	
	INTERNALIZED NORMS: The degree to which a member incorporates the group norms into his own system	**CONTRACTUAL RELATIONS:** Relationships between group members and outsiders (spouses, children, parents, employers, etc.) which have obligations attached
	EGO: The person's capabilities for assessing realities; his strengths, genetic endowment, self-concept; how he feels about himself; his ability to plan and his change potential; intrapsychic events	

SELECTED READING II-3

WHAT TO LOOK FOR IN GROUPS

Adapted from the 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, Pfeiffer, J.W., and Jones, J.C., editors, University Associates Publishers, Inc., LaJolla, Ca., pp. 21-26, 1972. This article was reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978.

WHAT TO LOOK FOR IN GROUPS

All human interactions have two major ingredients--content and process. The first deals with the subject matter or the task with which the group is working. In most interactions, the main focus is on the content. The second ingredient, process, is concerned with what is happening between and to group members while the group is working. The group process, as it emerges in this course, encompasses tone, atmosphere, influence, participation, styles of influence, leadership struggles, conflict, competition, and cooperation. In most interactions, very little attention is paid to process, even when it is the major cause of ineffective group action. Sensitivity to group process will better enable trainers to diagnose group problems early, deal with them more effectively, and will enable trainees to be more effective participants.

Below are some guidelines to help trainers analyze group behavior. They should remember to use female-male behavior exhibited in the group to illustrate points made in the course.

PARTICIPATION

Verbal participation is one indication of involvement. Trainers should look for differing amounts of participation within the group and, specifically, differences between men and women.

- *Who participates more than others?*
- *Who participates less?*
- *Do you see any shift in participation, e.g., frequent participators becoming quiet, infrequent participators suddenly becoming talkative? Do you see any possible reason for this in the group's interaction?*
- *How are those who remain silent treated? How is their silence interpreted--consent, disagreement, disinterest, fear, etc.?*
- *Who talks to whom? Do you see any reason for this in the group's interactions? Are the interactions male/male, male/female, or female/female?*
- *Who keeps the ball rolling? Shy? Do you see any reason for this in the group's interactions?*

INFLUENCE

Influence and participation are not the same. Some people may speak very little yet they capture the attention of the whole group. Others may talk a lot but are generally not listened to by other members.

- *Which members are high in influence? That is, when they talk, do others seem to listen? Are they women or men?*
- *Which members are low in influence? Is there any shifting in influence? Who shifts, women or men?*
- *Do you see any rivalry in the group? Is there a struggle for leadership? What effect does it have on other group members?*

Styles of Influence

Influence can take many forms. It can be positive or negative; it can enlist the support or cooperation of others or alienate them. How a person attempts to influence another may be the determining factor in the other's receptivity. There are at least four styles of influence that frequently emerge in groups.

- Autocratic--*Does anyone attempt to impose her will or values on others or try to push them to support her decisions? Who evaluates or passes judgment on other group members? Do any members block action when it is not moving in the direction they desire? Who pushes to "get the group organized?"*
- Peacemaker--*Who eagerly supports other's decisions? Does anyone consistently try to avoid conflict or unpleasant feelings from being expressed by pouring oil on the troubled waters? Is any member typically deferential toward other group members (thus giving others power)? Do any members appear to avoid giving negative feedback, i.e., will they level only when they have positive feedback to give?*
- Laissez-faire--*Are any group members getting attention because of their apparent lack of involvement in the group? Does any group member go along with group decisions without seeming to commit herself one way or the other? Who seems to be withdrawn and uninvolved? Who does not initiate activity, or participates mechanically and only in response to another member's question? Are they women or men?*

- Democratic--*Does anyone try to include everyone in a group discussion or decision? Who expresses her feelings and opinions openly and directly without evaluating or judging others? When feelings run high and tensions mount, which members attempt to deal with the conflict in a problem-solving way?*

DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURES

Many decisions are made in groups before full consideration has been given to the effects these decisions will have on other members. Some people try to impose their decisions on the group, while others want all members to participate or share in the decisions that are made.

- *Does anyone make a decision and carry it out without checking with other group members (self-authorized)? For example, does anyone decide on the topic to be discussed and immediately begin to talk about it? What effect does this have on others?*
- *Does the group drift from topic to topic? Who topic jumps? Do you see any reason for this in the group's interactions?*
- *Who supports other members' suggestions or decisions? Does this support result in the two members deciding the topic or activity for the group? How does this affect others?*
- *Is there any evidence of a majority pushing a decision through over other members' objections? Do they call for a vote (majority support)?*
- *Is there any attempt to get all members participating in a decision (consensus)? What effect does this seem to have on the group?*
- *Does anyone make contributions that receive no response or recognition? What effect does this have on the member?*

MEMBERSHIP

A major concern for group members is the degree to which they are accepted by the group. Different patterns of interaction may develop in the group that give clues to the degree and kind of membership.

- *Are there any subgroups?* (Two or three members may band together for a period of time during which they consistently agree and support each other. Or several members may consistently disagree and oppose one another.)

- *Do some people seem to be "outside" the group? Are some "in?" How are those "outside" treated?*

FEELINGS

During any group discussion, feelings are frequently generated by the interactions between members. Although these feelings are rarely discussed, the tone of voice, facial expressions, gestures, and many other forms of nonverbal cues can help observers understand what participants are feeling.

- *What signs of feelings do you observe in group members (anger, irritation, frustration, warmth, affection, excitement, boredom, defensiveness, competitiveness)?*

- *Do you see any attempts by group members to block the expression of feelings, particularly painful feelings? How is this done? Does anyone do this consistently?*

Adults bring some special resources to the learning situation; they have a great deal of experience from which to draw. Problems that might be purely theoretical to an adolescent are real to an adult who has some experience coping with them. Knowledge based on experience is especially important because there are no easy answers or theoretical solutions to the many problems connected with drug abuse.

TASK FUNCTIONS

There are certain functions that should be carried out in order to get the job done. The trainers will improve their understanding of the process if they take a look at how these functions are accomplished.

- *Does anyone ask for or make suggestions as to the best way to proceed or to tackle a problem?*

- *Does anyone attempt to summarize what has been covered or what has been going on in the group?*

- *Is there any giving or asking for facts, ideas, opinions, feelings, feedback, or searching for alternatives?*

- *Who keeps the group on target? Who prevents topic jumping or going off on tangents?*

MAINTENANCE

These functions are important to the morale of the group. Their performance (or the lack thereof) can maintain or destroy good and harmonious working relationships among the members. When properly carried out, these functions can create an atmosphere that enhances each member's ability to contribute maximally.

- *Who helps others get into the discussion (gate openers)?*
- *Who cuts off others or interrupts them (gate closers)?*
- *How well are members getting their ideas across? Are some members preoccupied and not listening? Are there any attempts by group members to help others clarify their ideas?*
- *How are ideas rejected? How do members react when their ideas are not accepted? Do members attempt to support others when they reject their ideas?*

GROUP ATMOSPHERE

The way a group works creates an atmosphere that, in turn, is revealed in a general impression. Trying to capture this impression in words will give the trainer some insight into what people do and don't like about the training environment.

- *Who seems to prefer a friendly congenial atmosphere? Is there any attempt to suppress conflict or unpleasant feelings?*
- *Who seems to prefer an atmosphere of conflict and disagreement? Do any members provoke or annoy others?*
- *Do people seem involved and interested? What is the atmosphere like?*
- *Are certain topics avoided in the group (e.g., sex, talk about immediate feelings in the group, discussing the leader's behavior, etc.)?*
- *Who seems to reinforce this avoidance? How?*

- *Are group members overly nice or polite to each other? Are only pleasurable feelings expressed? Do members agree with each other too readily? What happens when members disagree?*

- *Do you see norms operating about participation or the kinds of questions that are allowed (e.g., "If I talk, you must talk," or "If I tell my problems, you have to tell yours")? Do members feel free to ask each other about their feelings? Do questions tend to be restricted to intellectual topics or events outside of the group?*

ROLE FUNCTIONS IN GROUPS

The discussion of role functions is based on the following resource paper. Space for notes is provided at the end of the paper.

ROLE FUNCTIONS IN A GROUP*

The members of an efficient and productive group must provide for meeting two kinds of needs--what it takes to do the job, and what it takes to strengthen and maintain the group. Specific statements and behaviors may be viewed at a more abstract level than the content or behavior alone, i.e., in terms of how they serve the group needs.

What members do to serve group needs may be called functional roles. Statements and behaviors which tend to make the group inefficient or weak may be called nonfunctional behaviors.

A partial list of the kinds of contributions or the group services which are performed by one or many individuals is as follows:

A. TASK ROLES (functions required in selecting and carrying out a group task)

1. *Initiating Activity:* proposing solutions, suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new approaches to the problem, or new ways of organizing material

2. *Seeking Opinion:* looking for an expression of feeling about something from the members, seeking clarification of values, suggestions, or ideas

3. *Seeking Information:* asking for clarification of suggestions, requesting additional information or facts

4. *Giving Information:* offering facts or generalizations, relating one's own experience to the group problem to illustrate points

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*Reproduced by special permission from *Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa,* of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with The National Education Association, 1967. The classification system was developed by Morton Deutsch, "The Effects of Cooperation & Competition upon Group Process." In D. Cartwright & A. Zander, *Group Dynamics--Research & Theory,* (2nd ed.). Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson & Co., 1960. See also Benne, K.D., & Sheats, P. "Functional Roles & Group Members." *Journal of Social Issues,* 1948, 4(2).

5. *Giving Opinion:* stating an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion or one of several suggestions, particularly concerning its value rather than its factual basis

6. *Elaborating:* clarifying, giving examples or developing meanings, trying to envision how a proposal might work if adopted

7. *Coordinating:* showing relationships among various ideas or suggestions, trying to pull ideas and suggestions together, trying to draw together activities of various subgroups or members

8. *Summarizing:* pulling together related ideas or suggestions, restating suggestions after the group has discussed them

B. GROUP BUILDING AND MAINTENANCE ROLES (functions required in strengthening and maintaining group life and activities)

1. *Encouraging:* being friendly, warm, responsive to others, praising others and their ideas, agreeing with and accepting contributions of others

2. *Gatekeeping:* trying to make it possible for another member to make a contribution to the group by saying, "We haven't heard anything from Jim yet," or suggesting limited talking time for everyone so that all will have a chance to be heard

3. *Standard Setting:* expressing standards for the group to use in choosing its content or procedures or in evaluating its decisions, reminding group to avoid decisions which conflict with group standards

4. *Following:* going along with decisions of the group, thoughtfully accepting ideas of others, serving as audience during group discussion

5. *Expressing Group Feeling:* summarizing what group feeling is sensed to be, describing reactions of the group to ideas or solutions

C. BOTH GROUP TASK AND MAINTENANCE ROLES

1. *Evaluating:* submitting group decisions or accomplishments to comparison with group standards, measuring accomplishments against goals

2. *Diagnosing:* determining sources of difficulties, appropriate steps to take next, analyzing the main blocks to progress

3. *Testing for Consensus:* tentatively asking for group opinions in order to find out whether the group is nearing consensus on a decision, sending up trial balloons to test group opinions

4. *Mediating:* harmonizing, conciliating differences in points of view, making compromise solutions

5. *Relieving Tension:* draining off negative feeling by jesting or pouring oil on troubled waters, putting a tense situation in wider context

From time to time,more often perhaps than anyone likes to admit, people behave in nonfunctional ways that do not help and sometimes actually harm the group and the work it is trying to do. Some of the more common types of such nonfunctional behaviors are described below.

D. TYPES OF NONFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR

1. *Being Aggressive:* working for status by criticizing or blaming others, showing hostility towards the group or an individual, deflating the ego or status of others

Blocking: interfering with the group's progress by intentionally deviating from the subject of discussion, citing irrelevant personal experiences, rejecting ideas without consideration, arguing excessively

Self-Confessing: using the group as a sounding board, expressing personal, nongroup-oriented feelings or points of view

Competing: vying with others to produce the best idea, to talk the most, to play the most roles, to gain the leader's favor

5. *Seeking Sympathy:* trying to gain group members' sympathy to one's problems or misfortunes, deploring one's own situation, or disparaging one's own ideas to gain support

6. *Special Pleading:* introducing or supporting suggestions related to personal concerns or philosophies, lobbying

7. *Horsing Around:* clowning, joking, mimicking, disrupting the work of the group

8. *Seeking Recognition:* attempting to call attention to one's self by loud or excessive talking, extreme ideas, unusual behavior

9. *Withdrawal:* acting indifferently or passively, resorting to excessive formality, daydreaming, doodling, whispering to others, wandering from the subject

In using a classification such as the one above, people need to guard against the tendency to blame any person (whether themselves or another) who falls into "nonfunctional behavior." It is more useful to regard such behavior as a symptom that all is not well with the group's ability to satisfy individual needs through group-centered activity. People need to be alert to the fact that each person is likely to interpret such behavior differently. For example, what appears to be nonfunctional behavior may not necessarily be so, for the content and the group conditions must also be taken into account. There are times when some forms of aggression contribute positively by clearing the air and instilling energy into the group.

E. IMPROVING MEMBER ROLES

Any group is strengthened and enabled to work more efficiently if its members--

1. become more conscious of the role function needed at any given time;

2. become more sensitive to and aware of the degree to which they can help to meet the needs through what they do;

3. undertake self-training to improve their range of role functions and skills in performing them.

SELECTED READING II-4

HIDDEN AGENDAS

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HIDDEN AGENDAS

Any group works on two levels: the level of the surface task with which the group is immediately concerned, and the level of the hidden, undisclosed needs and motives of its individual members. Participants' aspirations, attitudes, and values affect the way they react to the group's surface task. Such individual "hidden agendas" siphon off valuable energy that could be used for accomplishing the task at hand and for group maintenance.

Understanding how these hidden agendas work in the life of a group helps the group achieve its common goal more efficiently.

INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

A person joins a group in order to fulfill or express certain personal needs. His behavior as a member of that group is neither random nor haphazard: it is keyed to his personal motivations, which may be social or emotional, explicit or hidden to the group, known or unknown to the individual himself.

Needs, of course, take different forms and can be satisfied in different ways for different people. Physical and security needs are basic: an individual must have food, shelter, and warmth in order to maintain life; if he is not to be overwhelmed by anxiety, he must also achieve some security and stability in his environment.

When such basic survival needs are met, other needs press for satisfaction. An individual has social, ego, and self-fulfillment requirements as well. These are the needs that can best be fulfilled in a group situation; thus, their satisfaction is often the individual's motivation for joining a group.

As individuals seek acceptance from others, social needs become apparent; when these are filled, the person's ego presses for its satisfaction. Finally, as the individual begins to understand his own unique identity, he can become fully himself.

Hidden Needs

Hidden beneath the surface of the group's life are many individual, conflicting currents: its members' needs for belonging, acceptance, recognition, self-worth, self-expression, and productivity.

Such needs are personal and subjective, but they are not necessarily "selfish." Looking for the satisfaction of personal needs through group membership is both "normal" and "natural." We are not concerned here with the question of how or whether these needs should be satisfied, but with their effect on the group as a whole.

If *one* individual's needs block another from achieving *his* needs, or if such personal needs hinder the group from accomplishing its goals, then we become concerned. We want to legitimize the individual's fulfillment of his needs in ways that do not raise obstacles for other members of the group.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR LEADERS

The leader should keep in mind the fact that a group continuously works on both the hidden and the surface levels. Hidden agendas may prevent the group from moving as fast as participants would like or expect.

What can be done about hidden agendas.

1. The leader can look for hidden agendas and learn to recognize their presence.

2. A group member may help surface hidden agendas. He may say, for example, "I wonder if we have said all that we felt about the issue. Maybe we should take time to go around the table and ask for individual comments so that we can open up any further thoughts."

3. Hidden agendas can be brought into the open and discussed. But not all hidden agendas can be confronted successfully by a group; some are best left under the surface.

4. The leader should not criticize the group for the presence of hidden agendas; they are legitimate and must be worked with just like the surface task. The amount of attention that should be given to the hidden agendas depends on the degree of their influence on the group's task.

5. The leader should help the group find the means of solving hidden agendas. Problem-solving methods are needed, though techniques vary.

6. The group should spend some time evaluating its progress in handling hidden agendas. The last fifteen minutes of a meeting devoted to such evaluation is often very helpful.

Better and more open ways of dealing with hidden agendas should become apparent through experience. And as groups mature, hidden agendas are often reduced, thus increasing the amount of energy the group has to devote to its surface tasks.

SELECTED READING II-5

THEORIES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

THEORIES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Human groups are constantly changing. Issues that were critical in the first session evaporate by the fourth session; the excitement in session three is followed by boredom in session seven. Moods fluctuate, central concerns grow and decline in importance. The group has a life of its own; its primary characteristic is movement. Groups, like individuals, are unique, but they appear to share some similar attributes. These observations have been made repeatedly by students of group behavior and are the bases for the many theories of group development (Banet, 1976).

FUNCTIONS OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Theories of group development serve descriptive and predictive functions. For the group leader, the theory provides a rationale for making certain kinds of interventions in the group process to highlight and clarify relevant training issues.

> On a descriptive level, ...[group development] theory permits the observer to organize his perceptions. During a given slice of group life, verbal behavior, the interaction pattern, emotional climate, or type of content can be characterized and measured. Whatever the observational base, descriptions of group phenomena in a given session can be compared and contrasted with those from a past or future session.
>
> Used predictively, developmental theory enables the observer to forecast the group's future process. The theory describes what *should* be happening, at least under ideal conditions, so that ...[goals] can be set. The predictive aspect offers comfort to the group practitioner: events will not always be as conflicted or sluggish as they appear to be in a given session.
>
> A particular theory also provides the group leader with cues for specific interventions. The leader may want to accelerate the process, slow it down, or freeze or focus it to insure that a group does not avoid or ignore opportunities for learning. Equipped with theory, the leader may plan or design interventions intended to surface and

> clarify process issues that he regards as important.
>
> Developmental theory is a particularly helpful guide to amplifying issues that groups frequently find troublesome: dependency, authority, conflict, power, and intimacy (Banet, 1976).

Group development theory, therefore, is a set of formal or informal assumptions about group life that gives the trainer a means to predict how individuals will behave in the group, what group phenomena are likely to occur, and how the group will grow and develop over time. A group theory reveals order and pattern in a seemingly random or chaotic situation (Banet, 1974).

In all groups there are two components to consider: (1) personal relations (the development of interpersonal relationships among group members) and (2) the task (the work to be performed by the group). When shared with the group, a model helps the members--

- identify the stages of development experienced by the group;
- assume personal responsibility for assisting each other in the process of group development;
- anticipate kinds of group interaction problems;
- diagnose interaction problems and work through issues that might otherwise hinder or destroy the group or substantially decrease its membership;
- learn to work more effectively by reviewing the mass of data that is generated in group interactions to discover how the work gets done, how decisions get made, how people get included, etc.;
- diagnose the resources that are available within the group itself; and
- increase their awareness of ways to help the group manage its own development (Jones, 1973).

THE TRAINER'S THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

At present, no single theory of group development adequately accounts for all group phenomena reported by observers. Events that are commonplace in a Tavistock conference, for instance, may never surface in a team-building session. Individual "implosions" occur in a Gestalt workshop, but rarely in a communication-skills laboratory. Some groups spend half their lives working on authority issues; others focus on this issue only momentarily before moving on to more positive, intimate interactions.

It appears that these discrepancies can be attributed to the trainer's belief in a particular theory of group development. Believing that certain things will occur often makes them happen. The theory, as an observational tool, influences what is being observed. As Butkovich et al (1975) state in a recent study, there is a strong "possibility that the group leader's theoretical orientation, as it is reflected in his interpretations and behavior, is causally related to the very group behavior being interpreted."

This contamination (by the observer) of what is being observed is prevalent in all applied behavioral science. Such contamination does not discredit a theory, but serves to remind us that a "truth" has been filtered through the built-in biases and distortions of a human observer. It does, however, raise a difficult methodological issue: some process elements (transference, for example) may in truth be artifacts of the observational tool employed. What is reported as group-process event may exist only in the mind of the observer. As Lundgren (1971) has demonstrated, the pace and pattern of group process, as well as specific group phenomena, are directly related to the intervention stance prescribed by the leader's theory of group development. Therefore, this is a primary problem in utilizing group development theories.

Too often trainers arrive at (or accept) one model of group development that they then use (and impose) on the group to predict its behavior. Trainers need to examine critically whatever model they espouse in light of their own and others' experiences and current research on group behavior.

THE INTERRELATION OF CONTENT, PROCESS, AND STRUCTURE

In a group development theory, the content, process, and structure of a group are closely interrelated. Content (*what* topic is being discussed) is determined by the group's task--whether that task is to make decisions, learn new information, overcome resistances to growth, or experiment with new behavior. Group process refers to *how* a group behaves. Process elements include events happening inside individual members, those happening within the group such as the development of norms, and the impact on the group of such variables as their individual past histories and experiences outside of the group. In the life of a group, content and process are continually occurring.

The structure of the group determines the extent to which content and process *visibly* interrelate and influence each other. Structure includes such elements as:

- The group's objectives
- The leader's attitude toward the group resulting from the theory he espouses
- The contract between the leader and the group
- The ground rules to which the group subscribes
- The organization and sequence of the group's activities

Structure can also refer to the physical environment in which the group lives and how the environment effects the group.

Group structure can be tight and rigid--e.g., no process elements are recognized by the group as being part of its agenda--or it can be so loose that the process itself becomes the content, as in a sensitivity or encounter group. To some extent, the profusion of group development theories is a result of the variety of group structures observed by theorists. Some groups may be structured to allow fifteen phases of process to develop; other groups, only one or two.

Depending on the purpose of the group and how the group is structured, the trainer focuses on certain specific process elements and makes decisions about guiding the group. A five-day workshop on task analysis, for example, would focus on content rather than process. The trainer needs to be aware of group process, but process intervention would be made only to facilitate the learning of content. The trainer's contract with the group would be to teach each member specific content and skills. Therefore, he would probably not make a process intervention to focus on the roles members play in groups.

A second example is that of a five-day course in couselor training whose goals are (1) to assist participants to become aware of the problems that hinder their ability to counsel drug addicts effectively, and (2) to teach participants certain counseling skills, such as empathic listening. In this case the trainer would make many more process interventions, both to facilitate the group's work and also to help participants recognize process aspects within the counseling situation. The trainer, however, would not allow the course to become a sensitivity, encounter, or therapy session--something that is not part of the contract between trainer and the group.

Too much or too little attention to process endangers the group's task function--it's reason for being. Each intervention by a trainer is a creative decision made to enrich the content. In every case, a trainer contracts with a group to provide training for a given purpose and to accomplish certain objectives. This, then, provides the initial structure, which is further defined by the ground rules and trainer-member participation.

FOUR PHASES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

The group development model followed in TOT combines aspects of theories put forth by Jones (1973), Tuckman (1965), and Banet (1976). Jones describes a four phase model, each phase of which is analyzed in terms of group members' concerns with personal relations (process) functions and task functions. Since Jones's model describes events that are commonly experienced by groups organized for a purpose such as a training course, the TOT model is based on Jones's formulations.*

TOT Model

Phase	Task Functions	Personal Relations Functions
1	Orientation	Testing and Dependence
2	Organizing to Get Work Done	Intragroup Conflict
3	Information-flow	Group Cohesion
4	Problem-solving	Interdependence

---

*Some of the other models of group development are based on a psychiatric model (e.g., Bion, 1959).

Explanation of the Phases

Phase I

Task: Orientation

In the first phase, the needs of group members are to be oriented to the task, that is, to define the task, specify issues, identify expectations, and explore the nature of the work. From this members develop a common understanding of the group's purpose that begins to answer the questions: Why are we here? What are we supposed to do? How are we going to get it done? And, what are our goals?

Personal Relations: Testing and Dependency

In the first phase, participants generally act as if they depend on the leader to provide all the structure. They look to the leader to set the ground rules, establish the agenda, to do all the "leading," while the group members acclimate themselves to the setting. Feelings involved are excitement, apprehension, and confusion. Group members exhibit behavior to test what behavior is acceptable and what is taboo, and begin to establish boundaries, to consider themselves as individuals vis-a-vis the group, and to define the function of the group and the leader.

Concluding Phase I

This phase generally concludes when there is general agreement that the goals are achievable and that change is possible--whether it be changing behavior, making a decision, or solving a problem.

Phase II

Task: Organizing to Get Work Done

Organizing to get work done involves a number of group decisions. These include:

- Establishing work rules
- Determining limits
- Defining the reward system

- Setting the criteria for the task
- Dividing the work
- Assigning individual responsibility for particular tasks

Personal Relations: Intragroup Conflict

Participants bring to a group activity unique perspectives and many unresolved conflicts with regard to authority, dependency, rules, and agenda. The result is that groups experience interpersonal conflict as they organize to get work done. The conflict may remain hidden, but it is there.

The variety of organizational concerns that emerges reflects the interpersonal conflict over leadership and leadership structure, power, and authority.

Awareness of the possibility of change that was begun in Phase I, becomes a denial of the possibility of and the need for change; group members adhere instead to one or another extreme. The feeling level is marked by dependency on old ways and resistance to take the risks that work and change require.

This polarizing effect of early group interaction is documented in the work of Myers and Lamm (1975). After some initial effort to alter previously held positions, group members revert to their previous, pre-group stance and fight to maintain it. This phenomenon, variously described as regression or resistance, seems to occur when the group is perceived as an arena wherein deep-seated values, beliefs, and world views can be challenged. During this phase, the atmosphere is tense and much work is accomplished.

Concluding Phase II

This phase concludes when group members have struggled enough with each other to resolve, partially, their personal relations concerns (similarities to and differences from other group members, authority, dependency, and leadership) and have agreed upon how they will organize to do the work. This allows issues to emerge that are sufficiently important for the group as a whole to consider.

Phase III

Task: Information Flow

Participants begin sharing ideas and feelings, giving and soliciting feedback, exploring actions, and sharing information related to the task. This is a period during which people become gradually more comfortable about being part of a group. There is an emerging openness with regard to the task.

Personal Relations: Group Cohesion

It is during the third stage of development (assuming the group gets this far) that the participants, having resolved interpersonal conflict, begin to experience catharsis and a feeling of belonging to a group. This enables the group to focus on the task. Different points of view enrich the group process.

This phase is marked by the emergence of a "both/and" attitude on the part of group members, which replaces the "either/or" thinking of Phase II. Power and authority are seen as residing both in the group and in its members. In many theories this is the central period of group development.

During this stage there is sometimes a brief abandonment of the task in which a period of play, an enjoyment of the cohesion being experienced, takes place.

Concluding Phase III

When it becomes apparent that there has been learning in the form of new insights and new solutions to problems, the group moves into phase four.

Phase IV

Task: Problem Solving

During Phase IV, the group's tasks are well-defined, there is a commitment to common activity, and there is support for experimentation in solving problems.

Personal Relations: Interdependence

Stage four, which is not achieved by many groups, is characterized by interdependence in personal relations. Interdependence means that members have the ability to work singly, in any subgroup, or as a total unit.

The group's activities are both collaborative and functionally competitive. The feelings are focused on enjoyment of the here and the now. A reflective, meditative silence coexists with playful and pleasurable interaction with others. The task seems completed and there is a need for closure, repose, and quiet.

This movement is marked by integration and celebration. Much work is accomplished; previously difficult issues are simply and easily resolved. There may be attempts by some members of the group to "freeze" change and the group may decide to stop its work here.

Concluding Phase IV

If it develops the awareness that this apparent end point offers the possibility for a new beginning, the group may begin at this new starting point and work through each of the four phases in a somewhat different fashion.

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DISCUSSION: THEORIES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

The Stages of Group Growth

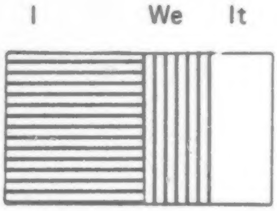
During every group interaction, three types of needs are present: individual needs, group needs, and task needs. The length of time spent on each type of need depends upon many variables, a major one being the phase of group development.

I = Personal Needs -- getting oriented to the group, finding out whether one's personal needs will be met

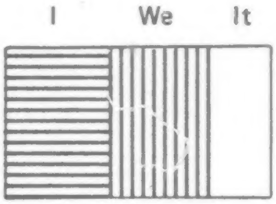
We = Group Needs -- developing useful membership roles, ground rules, procedures, and group structures as needs emerge

It = Group Task -- focusing on the agreed-upon objective(s)

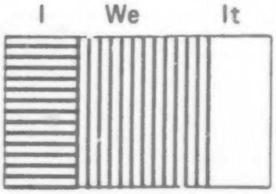
The following diagram shows different stages in the evolution of a group:



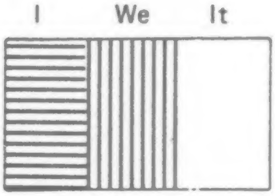
Phase I: Orientation, Testing, and Dependency



Phase II: Organizing to Get Work Done, IntraGroup Conflict



Phase III: Information-flow, Group Cohesion



Phase IV: Problem-solving, Interdependence

MODULE III

MODULE III: TRAINER STYLE **TIME:** 3 HOURS 30 MINUTES

GOALS

- To gain insight into present training style and self-understanding of desired professional goals
- To gain the motivation to consider options for strengthening deficiencies in style
- To facilitate self-assessment of tendencies within the trainer's own style that frustrate adult learners
- To understand issues relevant to cotraining.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Give parameters of different styles
- Make a statement that is descriptive of his or her own style, after using a self-assessment inventory
- List three trainer traits felt to be worth working toward
- List four trainer traits that are felt to be understandable
- List four issues to negotiate with a cotrainer.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET III-1
MINI ROLE PLAY

PURPOSE:

To use knowledge of style to develop an effective working relationship with another trainer with whom the trainer is unfamiliar.

MATERIALS:

Scenarios and roles

PROCEDURE:

1. Form dyads.
2. Separately, read the description of the course you will deliver together the following day. Then, choose your own role and decide how to handle it. (It does not matter if both of you choose the same role.) Do not disclose which role you have chosen.
3. Discuss/negotiate how you would like the training to go with your cotrainer. In arriving at a contract, highlight the following:
   a) Will you be co-equal or lead-subordinate or some other permutation?
   b) When one of you is "on," how should others act?
   c) How roughly might you divide up the delivery and facilitative roles?
   d) How will you prepare for delivery (i.e., some trainers design on the back of an envelope enroute to the event. Others come super prepared with, for example, flip charts already made; some stagger in with book and other resources). How have each of you prepared? Is there a fit?
   e) Identify anything else that is important to you.
4. Reconvene in the large group and discuss satisfaction with the contract, problematic issues, and interesting issues.

TIME:

20 minutes for role plays
10 minutes for large group discussion

Worksheet III-1, Continued

SCENARIO

It's evening.

You arrived in town a few hours ago. Tomorrow morning you will begin training ____________________.

This course requires a fair amount of technical knowledge of __________, which gets played out in several lecture-type presentations.

However, there are many experiental activities to get across the learning.

ROLE

Choose the role that is most appealing to you. Do not disclose your role to your partner. It does not matter if you both choose the same role, since each may add to whatever role you've chosen the personal style characteristics of your own or of other group members that you learned about in earlier sections of this module.

ROLE 1: You are a very experienced trainer. You've trained this course several times before alone and with a cotrainer. It is difficult for you to share, but you are aware that you like the didactic material a fair amount better than processing it and the exercises.

ROLE 2: You have not done much training and have never given this particular course. You've prepared as thoroughly as anyone could; in fact, you prepared as if you were to be the sole trainer.

ROLE 3: You haven't much experience with this course although you have done a fair amount of training. You particularly enjoy the facilitative aspects of training. You are not particularly into media and methods, but would rather "draw it out of" participants.

ROLE 4: You consider yourself a "technician." While you believe in group process, you enjoy using many methods and just the right media to get the material across. You believe "a picture is worth a thousand words" and are very task oriented.

REFERENCE SHEET III-1
THE TRAINER IN RELATION TO FACTORS IN THE TRAINING ENVIRONMENT

LEARNING CLIMATE

Trainers talk a lot about developing a "good" learning climate: an atmosphere within the training session that is conducive to learning. Many factors affect the learning climate.

Cognitive theorists stress the importance of a psychological climate of orderliness in which goals are clearly defined; expectations and opportunities are carefully explained; a system that is open to inspection and questioning; and there is opportunity for honest and objective feedback. The cognitive theorists who emphasize learning by discovery also favor a climate that encourages experimentation (hypothesis-testing) and that is tolerant of mistakes, as long as one learns from those mistakes.

Personality theorists, especially those who are clinically oriented, emphasize the importance of a climate in which individual and cultural differences are respected; anxiety levels are appropriately controlled (enough to motivate but not so much as to block); achievement motivations are encouraged for those who respond to them; and feelings are considered to be as relevant to learning as are ideas and skills.

Humanistic psychologists suggest that we attempt to create a psychological climate in which the individual feels that others are accepting, trusting, respecful, and understanding. Some psychologists (especially field theorists) emphasize collaboration rather than competitiveness, encouragement of group loyalties, supportive interpersonal relations, and a norm of interactive participation (Knowles, 1973).

Establishing training norms that facilitate the learning process is essential for a good learning climate. Norms are standards of expected behavior that reflect the values of the majority of the group members. A group often develops its own norms. As in the larger society, norms become the basis for evaluating a member's behavior and, therefore, have the effect of controlling members of the group. Norms may be clearly expressed (explicit), or may be only implied (implicit). If shared by the group and reinforced by the trainer's attitude, the following training group norms will enhance the learning climate (Miles, 1973).

- *It's safe to try things out here.* The purpose of this session is to explore ideas and behavior. No one is being evaluated or judged. Not only is it permissible to try out new ideas or behaviors, it is also highly desirable and an important part of successful training. In training one can learn to explore ideas without putting down the speaker, to understand why others have different points of view, and to experiment with new behaviors.

- *People are important.* Very often workers in the helping professions can be heard to say, "People are important,"; yet they behave in ways that ignore the feelings of others. Working daily with people who have many problems, in an environment where the constraints are many and the satisfactions few, may actually desensitize staff members to human needs and emotions. In the controlled environment of a training group people can receive feedback about their behavior, resensitize themselves to others, and gain awareness.

- *Thoughts, feelings, and behavior are important.* In the helping professions, thoughts, feelings, and behavior are the basic data from which to work. Initially, participants may need to be encouraged by the trainer to express their thoughts and feelings and to examine the behavior they exhibited in the training session. If the trainer demonstrates an accepting, nonjudgmental attitude and endorses this behavior from the total group, participants will begin to encourage each other to discuss their personal beliefs. By discussing their beliefs in a group setting, people become aware of their attitudes and the ways in which these attitudes influence their behavior.

- *Things are not taken personally; we can examine what's happening here and now.* When the trainer responds objectively to expressions of feeling, he demonstrates that it is possible for group members to observe their feelings and learn from them. This does not mean that the trainer acts as though he has no feelings about what has been said. It means that the trainer expresses his feelings in an objective manner using the EIAG process. Through his behavior, the trainer demonstrates a process that group members can use to articulate and examine their own experiences without becoming trapped in highly emotional exchanges that may alienate them from the group. He helps members examine what's going on here and now in the group situation so that participants begin to comprehend how their feelings and behavior influence what is taking place.

- *Careful analysis and emotional support are possible and valuable.* As the trainer comments on, generalizes from, and raises questions about the experiences the group has been going through, he guides group members to think about these experiences and analyze the group process. Since the training group experience requires that members expose their own behavior to analysis and that they be willing to try things out to see what happens, the trainer should provide emotional support for group members as they work and learn. As the group work proceeds, the type of support that the trainer demonstrates becomes a group norm. Support, then, comes more and more from other group members. Typical support behaviors are: acting to reduce excessive conflict, encouraging members as they try out difficult things, and using EIAG to relieve group tension when it obstructs the learning process. Success depends on everyone feeling free to actively take part, to comment, to criticize, to make suggestions, and to listen to one another.

The trainer must be careful, however, not to exaggerate a training group's need for support. Excessive trainer support may result in dependence, or in a phony atmosphere of sweetness and light. Learning about one's attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, and how they affect others may be a painful experience but it is also a rewarding one. The trainer needs to exhibit his conviction that group members are mature enough to learn from experiences, even if those experiences are painful. The trainer needs to be supportive enough to permit the group to grow and learn, but not so supportive that he promotes overdependence.

A productive level of tension is necessary to encourage participants to examine their assumptions and to integrate new information. If the training climate is an open and honest atmosphere where everyone involved feels free and responsible for his own learning, the training activities will facilitate exploration of differing points of view; this creates the moderate level of tension necessary for a good learning climate. Trainers should be careful not to push participants to expose too much of themselves too soon. Trainees should be encouraged to express their thoughts and feelings, and to be silent when they desire.

. . . A climate is developed as people spend time together and break through the initial formal, "ice-breaking" period . . . climate is a variable produced by the expectations of members modified by their perceptions of the present situation and their degree of interaction and communication (Gorman, 1975).

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THE ROLE OF THE TRAINER

Each person must find his own "style," his own way of behaving with a group. Some guidelines:

- *Create the climate described above.* Behave in ways that demonstrate this climate for the group. Support people who try things out. Uphold those standards when members of the group don't follow them. If someone becomes critical or ignores the feelings of other people, describe what you see happening. Explain your concern about its effect on the group's learning climate, but do not be critical of them yourself; otherwise, your behavior contradicts what you are saying.

- If the group flounders or begins to lose sight of the overall purpose of the session, introduce techniques, nonverbal exercises, etc., to *help get things going.*

- *Give your own opinions and feelings.* Be a person. Let people realize that you feel part of the group and that you care about their problems.

- *Flow with the group.* Let group members have as many chances as they can to experience success in *Identifying, Analyzing and Generalizing.* These experiences improve their skills. The more *Experiencing, Identifying, Analyzing, and Generalizing* they do in the group, the more likely they will be to use this method of looking at their performance and improving it when they return to their jobs.

- *See yourself as a resource person,* a helper rather than the leader or key person in the group. The people have to go back to their jobs and function without you. If you become too important they won't be able to take what they have learned and apply it on their own. So don't:

  be overly directive with the group

  speak before other group members can collect their thoughts

  comment excessively

- *Respond to situations as they arise.* Your feelings are your best guide. Trust your own ideas and do what seems right to you at the time. Later, go back over the things that happened; figure out why they happened and what else you could have done. You are a learner, too.

Observing During the Session

Watch what is going on and try to understand it--even while you are participating. In your mind, step back frequently and try to form an overall picture of the session as it progresses, including your behavior and feelings. Discuss your reactions with the other trainers during a break. You may spot something (or someone) blocking people from learning. See what progress people are making and what changes in behavior are happening. Keep an eye on the climate for learning, checking to see how well it follows the guidelines described above.

Some things to watch for are:

- Who talks and who doesn't at different times
- How much people really listen to each other and the trainer
- How people sit, what their facrs say, what they do with their hands, etc.
- What subjects come up again and again
- What interrelationships show up, what groups form, who interrupts whom, who follows whom
- How the group as a whole makes decisions and solves problems
- What patterns seem to devleop

Concentrate on *what* happens and *how* it happens, rather than on *judging* what is happening.

REFERENCE SHEET III-2
DESIRABLE TRAINER CHARACTERISTICS: A SAMPLE LIST

Self-awareness, including a sense of the impact of his or her own behavior on others.

Ability to receive feedback from the environment.

Ability to encourage the taking of risks without humiliating participants.

Ability to deal with own feelings and the feelings of others.

Understanding and ability to manage group process.

An ability to make appropriate interventions, especially feedback, even when it is perceived as painful.

Ability to make clear presentations.

Ability to establish objectives and to move a group towards them.

Group facilitation, including the ability to let the group work on its own.

Cultural sensitivity to the many different ways of viewing things.

Ability to understand group process and the stages of group life.

Flexibility and adaptability in regard to the group's needs.

Ability to make good charts.

Planning and organizing presentations, the how and when of interventions.

Good delivery skills; stand-up skills.

Respect for needs of adult learners and ability to put adult learning theory into practice.

Holds all group members in "unconditional positive regard."

Has patience and paces self in accordance with the group's developmental phase.

Has communication skills.

Can deal with volatile material.

Can evaluate the training event.

Able to model behaviors that are taught.

Can allow criticism of self.

Reference Sheet III-2, Continued

POOR TRAINER CHARACTERISTICS: A SAMPLE LIST

Uses warnings and threats to get group moving.

Intervenes excessively.

Is the center of the process; does not allow group to work on its own.

Subtly or overtly insists on particular behaviors from group members.

Has little awareness of his or her impact on others.

Is not able to receive feedback.

Humiliates participants into taking risks.

Is unable to respond to process.

Avoids giving feedback when it is painful.

Poor delivery skills.

Gives unclear or disorganized presentations.

Lack of sensitivity to cultures or viewpoints different from his or her own.

Rigid and unadapting with regard to group's needs.

Unable to plan and organize events.

Violates needs of adult learners.

Does not expect to have respect or positive regard for all participants.

Poor communication skills.

Impatient and poor at pacing himself or herself.

Spends no time or is unable to evaluate a training event.

Is intolerant of any criticism directed at him or her.

REFERENCE SHEET III-3
ALTERNATIVE CHOICES FOR PERSONAL STYLE EXPLORATION

1. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

   Isabel Briggs Myers, co-author of the test, lives in Swarthmore, Pennsylvania, telephone number, (215) KI3-5538.

   Educational Testing Services (ETS) sells copies of the test questionnnaire, blank answer sheets, and template cards for scoring the test. The ETS address is:

   Educational Testing Services
   17 Executive Park Drive, N.E.
   Atlanta, Georgia 30329
   Telephone: (404) 325-3131

   Note: The scoring cards won't work with photocopied answer sheets. You will, therefore, have to order these.

   ETS also sells a manual that accompanies the test. Trainers may administer the test and the Personal Style module without the manual. These guidelines contain a sample of the booklet, Introduction to Type, by Isabel Briggs Meyers.

   Also included is the trainer rap (lecture), which explains the theory of Jungian typology.

2. The FIRO-B scales (Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation), by William C. Schultz.

   A self-report questionnaire designed to assess a person's need for 1) inclusion, 2) control, and 3) affectation in interpersonal relationships. FIRO-B relates to behavior which a person directs towards others and which he wants others to direct toward him. Order from:

   Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
   577 College Avenue
   Palo Alto, California 94306

3. POI (Personal Orientation Inventory), by Everett L. Shostrom.

   A self-scoring instrument designed to assess values, attitudes, and behavior relevant to Maslow's concept of the self-actualizing person. Order from:

   Educational and Industrial Testing Service
   P.O. Box 7234
   San Diego, California 92107

4. Transactional Analysis (TA).

   The popularity of the Parent-Adult-Child construct as applied to business and training as well as personal growth laboratories, indicates the usefulness of this approach to self-awareness. If you decide on TA, get a skilled TA trainer and give him or her Module IV to read for focus and direction.

5. LIFO (Survey of Life Orientations), by Alan Catcher.

   A sophisticated program which contains professional training for persons administering it, questionnaires and applications workbooks, and a series of guided exercises. Moves beyond simplistic "typing" into identifying how to use one's personal style constructively in a variety of situations. Order from:

   Atkins-Catcher Company
   8383 Wilshire Blvd.
   Beverly Hills, California 90211

6. ISS (Intervention Style Survey), by B.H. Arbes.

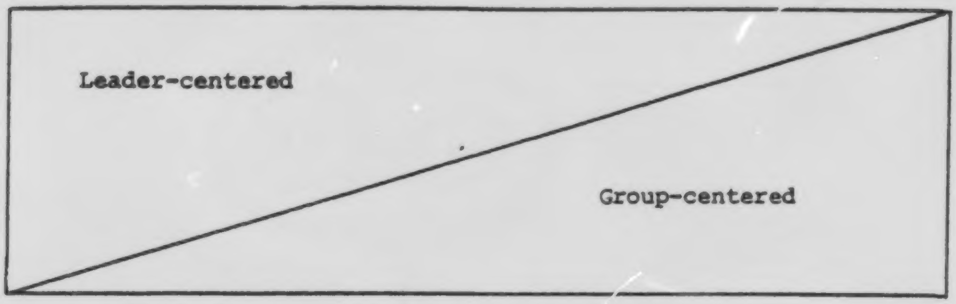
   Based on the Blake/Mouton management grid model, ISS identifies five types of leadership styles in student personnel deans. (Can be adapted for trainers.) All explanations and materials are in the 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, by Pfeiffer and Jones, pp. 75-85. The handbook may be ordered from:

   University Associates Publishers, Inc.
   7596 Eads Avenue
   La Jolla, California 92037

REFERENCE SHEET III-4

INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP STYLES

Styles of leadership can vary from autocratic to laissez-faire, from a style in which decisions are made only by the leader to one in which decisions are made only by the group. If we represent these styles graphically, they look something like this (Napier and Gershenfeld, 1973):



Leader decides, announces decision (autocratic)

Leader presents tentative idea, subject to change (democratic)

Group defines boundaries and decides (laissez-faire)

In the extreme leader-oriented (autocratic) style, the leader determines the problems and makes the final decision. He/she is often concerned that the group functions efficiently and accomplishes the tasks set before it. The process of the group, or how the members work together, is of little interest to the autocrat. This leader focuses almost exclusively on content.

In the extreme group-oriented (laissez-faire) approach, the group is allowed to determine the problems and to make the decisions. This leader keeps a very low profile and is content to let the group set its own course. To the laissez-faire leader, the end result is much less important than the question of how the group gets there.

In between the two extremes are any number of combinations of group and leader orientation. Most often, the style of a group leader is somewhere in the middle--such a leader might determine the area on which the group should focus and then will help the group work through the issue.

Although everyone has a style of leading with which he/she is most comfortable, conditions often exist that create pressures to adopt a more leader-centered or group-centered approach. *Factors that generally favor greater leader involvement are the following:*

1. *The urgency of the problem:* When a decision must be reached quickly, the leader may need to make the decision. Decisions made by the leader are usually reached more quickly than are decisions made by the group.

2. *Lack of group skills:* When a group has not developed a system for processing issues or is unclear about its goals, the leader is likely to assume a larger role.

3. *Expectations of the leader:* In many groups, members have unrealistic expectations of what the leader can do for them. Sometimes the group will pressure the leader (as the "expert") to make decisions for them.

4. *Leader discomfort:* The novice leader, especially, may feel uncomfortable when he/she perceives that nothing is happening in the group. A common response to this is to try to initiate some activity by taking charge.

Parallel conditions exist that promote greater involvement by the group.

1. *No time pressure:* If a group has no time limits, the leader can afford to sit and wait until the tension level of the group rises and the group initiates its own activity.

2. *Group skills:* When a group is established and the members trust each other and are comfortable in their roles, the leader often can stay in the background and let the group lead itself. But even this mature group may require direction from the leader if it becomes counterproductive.

3. *Group potency:* When the group has developed a cohesiveness, the members often will not rely on the leader, but will look for leadership from within the group.

4. *Leader comfort:* The leader who has been through uncomfortable situations before is likely to be less threatened when they recur. He/she may choose to sit back and allow tensions to build to the point where the group must examine the problem.

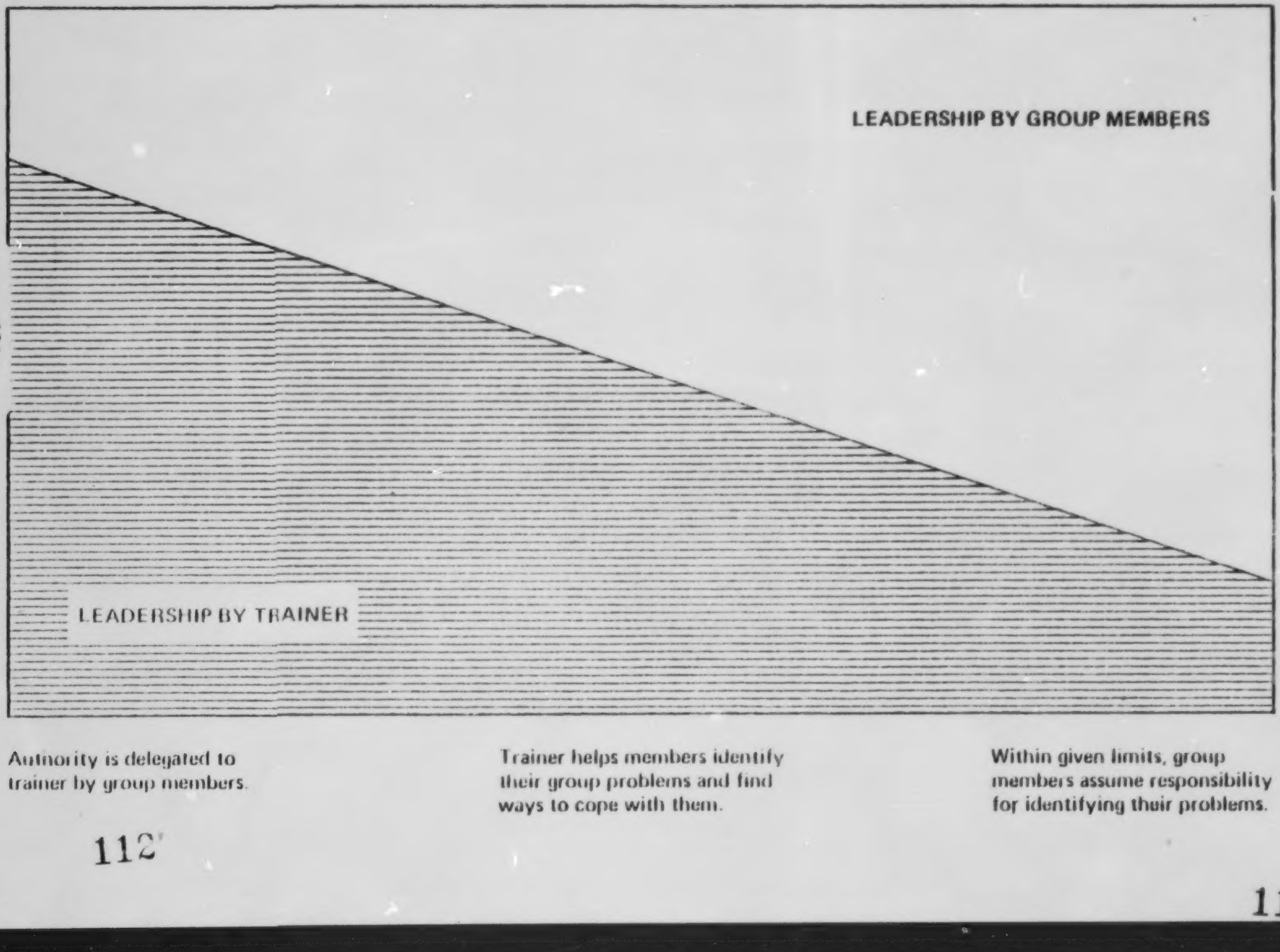
REFERENCE SHEET III-4 (CONTINUED)

The question of appropriate leadership styles arises in every group. Of course, many factors are specific to each group (for example, the composition of the group) and these affect the style of leadership. But many groups also progress through stages where different functions may be required of the leader. For instance, in the early stages of a group, the leader may have to be more directive, setting norms and goals and helping the members get acquainted. The leader must be careful, though, not to establish a precedent where the members rely on him/her to resolve group issues. Then at a later stage, the leader may want to become more nondirective and let the group resolve its problems through procedures established since the group's inception.

No leadership style can be considered foolproof. A directive leader probably will be confronted with aggressive and blocking behavior and challenges to his/her authority. The nondirective leader will encounter demands for more structure by group members. The effective group leader must be aware of the different leadership strategies appropriate to the stage of group growth and to the problems the group is facing. Fnnally, he/she must realize that, even with appropriate leadership, tensions are bound to arise occasionally. Although these tensions can make the leader uncomfortable, they often are helpful in promoting group growth.

GROUP LEADERSHIP

(Shift From Single To Shared Leadership)


LEADERSHIP BY GROUP MEMBERS
LEADERSHIP BY TRAINER

Authority is delegated to trainer by group members.

Trainer helps members identify their group problems and find ways to cope with them.

Within given limits, group members assume responsibility for identifying their problems.

REFERENCE SHEET III-6

TRAINER ETHICS

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Definition of Ethics: *Rules of human conduct recognized in respect to a particular class of human actions or to a particular group, culture, or discipline;* (in this case, the behavior of trainers in the discipline of training.) Random House Dictionary of the English Language, College Edition

B. Why Consider Ethics

1. A code of trainer ethics is essential to develop awareness of the responsibilities and limitations of the trainer. Such a code is also necessary in developing a professional attitude and approach to training.

2. Adherence to a code of ethics that reflects trainer responsibilities and appropriate trainer behavior helps insure quality training.

3. Adherence to this code also helps to insure a useful, positive experience for the participant--in terms of both skill acquisition and personal comfort--rather than a destructive experience.

C. Areas of Responsibility

1. Responsibility to himself.

   For example: the trainer should feel self-satisfaction and pride in his training effort and delivery.

2. Responsibility to the participants.

   This includes responsibility not only to the individual learners, but also to the programs in which the participants work. (See II. Ethical Issues outline for discussion.)

3. Responsibility to his profession, his colleagues, co-workers, and the training field.

4. Responsibility to the program.

When one is training, he represents not only himself, but also the agency or program in which he works. He has a responsibility to deliver training in a manner that is a credit to that affiliation.

II. ETHICAL ISSUES

The following are specific guidelines that a trainer must use to establish a code of ethics in order to carry out the four areas of responsibility outlined above.

A. Selection of Participants

The trainer clearly articulates to prospective participants the criteria for recommended selection of individuals for a particular training experience. The trainer is aware of potential problem areas, and, to the limited extent that personal difficulties are predictable and screening procedures can reasonably be implemented, prospective participants should be selected on the basis of these principles.

1. Persons whose goal in participating would be to seek aid in or a cure for emotional disturbances are considered inappropriate to this course.

2. Experience has shown that participants who are personally motivated and have volunteered for training have the greatest potential for success. Those who are responding to demands or wishes of another, e.g., an employer, may be inappropriate where training demands a high level of commitment from the participants.

3. Trainers may want to indicate in stating selection criteria that priority of selection should go to those individuals who have, in their own work setting, a position of responsibility to make use of the skills in which they will be trained. Second priority would be given to persons seeking a training experience solely for personal growth.

B. Goal Clarification

1. The fantasies and pretraining expectations that participants bring to a group will represent as many different interpretations as there are group members. The trainer, then, is the agent

upon whom the clear statement of goals and intentions is predominantly dependent.

2. The trainer must be clear at the beginning and maintain clarity of definitions and appropriateness of interventions throughout the group experience.
   a. This is especially true where goal clarification relates to skill building vs. therapy.
   b. Consideration of contracting for or negotiating individual learning needs applies here.
   c. Includes consideration of appropriate application of skills and limitations learned in training. For example:

      Completion of a counseling skills course does not necessarily qualify an individual to be a trainer of that course.

C. Accountability

The trainer makes a clear statement regarding his commitment to imparting specific information and skills, and/or conducting specific activities. He builds in evaluation mechanisms by which the learners, the employer, or the trainer may assess the meeting of that commitment.

D. Values and Philosophies

The trainer is aware of his personal values and philosophies, those of the participants, and those espoused by the group to which the trainer is accountable. The trainer recognizes that those values will not always be congruent, but that they should be compatible to the extent that training can be conducted without violating the validity of the point of view or the worth of any individual or program. Subjects that need to be considered are:

1. Political viewpoints
2. Sexual roles
3. Ethnic-racial and intercultural issues
4. Societal norms

5. Approaches to drug abuse

6. Therapeutic style

E. Competence

The trainer recognizes the boundaries of his competence and the limitations of his techniques and does not offer materials nor use techniques that fail to meet professional standards or with which he is unfamiliar.

F. Misrepresentation

A trainer does not claim, either directly or by implication, professional qualifications that exceed his actual qualifications, nor does he misrepresent his affiliation with any institution, organization, or individual, nor lead others to assume he has affiliations that he does not have. The trainer is responsible for correcting others who misrepresent his professional qualifications.

G. Acknowledgements

The trainer clearly indicates any known ownership, authorship or credit for the materials, concepts, and methods that he utilizes in presenting training. The trainer acknowledges any support or aid provided by persons assisting in preparing or presenting training. Where possible, acknowledgements are made in writing. Attributions of authorship for materials (and permission granted for their use) should be in writing.

H. Trainer Influence

The trainer is aware of the disproportionately large degree of influence he has upon the group and facilitates the group in understanding the need for continual assessment of this leadership factor. The trainer uses this influence in a way that facilitates learning, according to the agreed upon goals, and does not overstep these boundaries. The trainer actively seeks feeback from the group as well as from his colleagues in order to insure participants' involvement in group decisions.

I. Moral and Legal Standards

The trainer in the practice of his profession shows responsible regard for the social codes and moral expectations of the community in which he works. He recognizes that violations of accepted moral and legal standards on his part may involve the participants and/or his colleagues in damaging personal conflicts and impugn his own name and the reputation of his profession. He also recognizes that his congruence with the social and moral expectations of the community in which he works will facilitate more effective training.

1. Experience has shown that trainers becoming sexually involved with participants during training may be highly volatile; this is inappropriate trainer behavior.

2. Participating in illegal drug taking behavior and/or excessive legal drug taking behavior with trainees is also highly volatile and inappropriate.

J. Confidentiality

The trainer respects and protects the integrity and confidentiality of the group or individual with whom he is working.

K. Referral Services

The trainer recognizes that emergency medical and/or mental health referral services may be required, and seeks to obtain direct access to those services and to utilize them when appropriate. An effective referral by a trainer includes a clear rationale for the referral, consultation with at least one other trainer or supervisor when available, confidential communication, and follow-up.

Return-to-home procedures should also be clearly designated.

L. Personal Growth and Improvement

The trainer accepts his responsibility to maintain the highest standards of training and develops his skills as the state of the art develops. He continually seeks to improve on those skills already acquired and to expand the range and scope of skills and knowledge that he can apply professionally. Whenever possible, the trainer seeks supervision of training activities he conducts, and actively solicits feedback from participants, trainers, and supervisors.

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SELECTED READING III-1

SCIENCE AND THE ART OF TRAINING

SCIENCE AND THE ART OF TRAINING

Can science contribute to the art of training? To successful trainer behavior? It would be nice if the answer could be a resounding "Yes," based on a long parade of conclusive evidence and examples of richly useful findings. Unfortunately, that happy paper cannot yet be written in any honest way. Instead, the question must receive a rather more complex response.

First, I shall define the term "successful trainer behavior" and delimit the setting of the kind of training to be considered. Second, I shall outline reasons for pessimism as to whether research on training has any real likelihood of yielding scientific findings that can be used to improve training and quality assurance. Then I shall sketch the nature of the findings that would alleviate the pessimism.

DEFINITION AND DELIMITATION

The definition of "successful trainer behavior" is one based on research on training. The findings of such research may or may not accord with common sense. They may or may not accord with the virtues of personality and character, or desirable behaviors, described in writings on ethics, the Boy Scout Handbook, the Koran, or a Dale Carnegie course. Also, a research-based characterization of successful trainer behavior may not be extremely original, or completely non-obvious. Neither must such a description of behavior be highly systematic, since research findings at any given moment do not necessarily form a coherent scheme. As for validity, it is not conceivable that in the long run, some non-scientific insight or artistic hunch may turn out to be superior to what can now be cited on the basis of research evidence. The truths propounded in the past by novelists, essayists, or skilled supervisors of trainers may eventually prove more valid than the results of research now available.

Despite these possible limitations, I shall consider here only what the research literature has to offer. This literature takes the form of reports on empirical studies of one kind or another. In these studies, various kinds of trainer behavior have been related to other variables on which some sort of educational valuation can be placed. So, by the present definition, "successful" trainer behaviors or characteristics are those that have been found through empirical research to be related to something desirable about trainers. The "something desirable" may be improved achievement by trainees of any of the various cognitive, affective, or psychomotor objectives of education. Or, the "something desirable" may be a favorable evaluation of the trainer by trainees, a supervisor, a manager, or someone else whose judgment is important.

The empirical relationships between the trainer behaviors aand the desirable somethings may be found in two different ways. First, the relationships may be demonstrated in true experiments; if so, they may be considered to be genuine causal or functional relationships. Or they may be found only through correlational studies; if so, the inference that the trainer behavior causes the something desirable may be hazardous. Although it may be argued that conceptual, logical, or historical methods can also establish what is "successful trainer behavior," I am going to exclude them from my present definition of scientific method. That is, I shall assume that scientific knowledge as to what constitutes successful trainer behavior must be based on inference from an experiment or a correlational study that the behavior is related to something desirable.

Now let us specify the kind of setting in which the trainer behavior to be considered takes place. Various innovations now being considered by human resource developers, educators, and trainers may more frequently in the future make the setting of training something other than the conventional classroom. The setting may change in accordance with the needs of the trainees and the kinds of learning in which they are engaged. For some kinds of learning, trainees may be taught in large-group settings, such as motion picture theaters and lecture halls. For other kinds, the setting may be the small-group seminar, or a booth for programmed instruction, "individually prescribed instruction," or independent study. In the future of the NMTS these settings will, it is said, supplement and perhaps supplant today's conventional classroom utilized by most NMTS components.

But these different kinds of settings still lie in the future, for the most part. And the definition of successful training requires empirical research demonstrating a relationship between the behaviors of trainers and other desirable things. Most of that research, by far, has been done in classrooms. So this discussion will be restricted to the behavior of trainers in the conventional classroom.

REASONS FOR PESSIMISM

Let us now consider reasons for pessimism on the question, can science contribute to the art of training? To begin, it should be noted that making positive statements about the results of research on successful trainer behavior is not fashionable among training and educational research workers. Many reviewers of research on training have concluded that it has yielded little of value.

This disparaging style in appraising research results has had a great vogue. In 1953, a verdict was rendered that "the present condition of research on trainer effectiveness holds little promise of yielding results commensurate with the needs of American education" (American Educational Research Association, 1953). In 1958, Orville Brim concluded from his examination of reviews of the literature that there were no consistent relations between trainer characteristics and effectivenss in training. In 1963, in the Handbook of Research on Teaching, the authors of the chapter on teaching methods reported an impression that "teaching methods do not seem to make much difference" and that "there is hardly any evidence to favor one method over another" (Wallen and Travers, 1963). The authors of the chapter on teacher personality and characteristics concluded that "...very little is known for certain...about the relation between teacher personality and teacher effectiveness" (Getzels and Jackson, 1973). And the authors of the chapter on social interaction in the classroom concluded that "until very recently, the approach to the analysis of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction...has tended to be unrewarding and sterile" (Withall and Lewis, 1963). It would not be hard to find other summary statements to the effect that empirical research on training and teaching has not yielded much enlightenment about successful training.

After a thorough review, Dubin and Taveggia (1968) concluded that instructional methods make no difference in trainee achievement as measured by pre- and posttests on course content. Their review was unique in that they examined the data, rather than merely the conclusions, of nearly 100 studies made over a 40-year period. Of 88 independent comparisons of the lecture and discussion methods, reported in 36 experimental studies, 51 percent favored the lecture method and 49 percent favored the discussion method! Then they standardized the differences between 56 pairs of average scores, on the posttests examination, of trainees trained by these two methods;

the standardization made the differences comparable. The average of the differences between standardized averages turned out to be .09, not significantly different from zero. Similar results were obtained from independent comparisons of the following kinds of instruction:

Lecture vs. lecture-discussion (7 studies)

Discussion vs. lecture-discussion (3 studies)

Supervised independent study vs. face-to-face instruction (25 studies)

Supervised independent study vs. lecture (14 studies)

Supervised independent study vs. discussion (3 studies)

Supervised independent study vs. lecture-discussion (9 studies)

Unsupervised independent study vs. face-to-face instruction (6 studies)

Some writers hold that all research on training variables, not merely research on trainer behavior, has yielded negative results for the most part. The view that educational research yields negative findings has even been assimilated into a whole theory of the origins and process of training. Stephens (1967), after looking at the research reports and summaries, concluded that practically nothing seems to make any difference in the effectiveness of instruction. He considered this "flood of negative results" to be understandable in the light of his theory of spontaneous training. This theory postulates spontaneous, automatic forces in the background of the trainer--his maturational tendencies, various out-of-classroom agencies such as the home and the general community, and the reputation of the training institution as a place concerned about matters to be learned. The theory also refers to various spontaneous tendencies on the part of humans in the role of the trainer--tendencies to manipulate and communicate. These two kinds of force, the background forces and the automatic training forces, account for most of the learning that takes place. Furthermore, these spontaneous and powerful forces operate early in the growth process, when influences on learning have greater effects. Hence, the changes introduced by research variables, administrative factors, and pedagogical refinements of one kind or another are inadequate to produce any major difference.

Stephens documented his position with references to summaries of studies of a host of educational variables, procedures, practices, and orientations--namely attendance, instructional television, independent study and correspondence courses, size of class, individual consultation and tutoring, counseling, concentration on specific trainees, the trainee's involvement, the amount of time spent in study, distraction by jobs and non-job related activities, size of training groups, the qualities of trainers that can be rated by supervisors, team training, ability grouping, progressivism vs. traditionalism, discussion vs. lecture, group-centered vs. authority-centered approaches, the use of frequent quizzes, and programmed instruction. Studies of all these have failed to show that they make a consistent and significant difference.

Stephens considered briefly the possibility that the negative results were due to methodological errors, such as concentrating on one narrow segment of achievement, using insensitive tests, employing poor controls, exerting overcontrol that holds constant too much and thus restricts the differences, and using too stringent a criterion of statistical significance. But all in all, he concluded that negative results are only to be expected, because "in the typical comparison of two administrative devices (such as instructional methods) we have two groups that are comparable in the forces responsible for (say) 95 percent of the growth to be had and which differ only in the force that, at best, can affect only a small fraction of the growth" (Stephens, 1967). At any rate, according to many writers, of whom Stephens is perhaps the most systematic, the major generalization to be drawn from research is that variations in training and educational practice do not make any consistent, significant, or practical difference.

QUESTIONING THE PESSIMISM

So far we have considered reasons for pessimism about the promise of empirical research on training. Now let us raise some questions about these lugubrious views.

In the first place, these dismal generalizations may not do complete justice to the research domains for which they have been made. Here and there, in research on training methods, on trainer personality and characteristics, and on soical interaction in the classroom, it may be possible to come up with more sanguine judgments about the meaning of the research findings.

We need more searching reviews of what research on training has to offer. Such reviews would piece together the evidence from a variety of approaches to a given problem and determine whether it supports constructive suggestions concerning the practice of training. The new government-funded entities, with their improved facilities for tracking down and collating research, ought to make possible "state-of-the-art" papers based on more meticulous sifting of the literature. If so, future conclusions about research on training may be less melancholy.

One way to improve these models is to obtain better measure of a larger number of the trainer attributes that are significant to the ability of trainers to improve learning. Such measures will come closer to estimating the full effect of trainers, independently of other factors (Mood, 1970). Furthermore, these measures should be aimed at process variables, "those human learning" (Gagne, 1970). For example, trainer activities, rather than trainer characteristics such as amount of education, experience, or verbal ability. Fortunately, a substantial amount of research has been conducted on such process variables. These are the studies of trainer behavior in the classroom to which, in part, I shall address below.

SOME POSITIVE STATEMENTS

Having emphasized the difficulties of making positive research-based statements about successful training behaviors, I wish nonetheless to attempt such statements. My purpose is merely to illustrate the nature of the conclusions that might be drawn from more adequate examination of better research. My procedure will be to present a series of operational definitions of trainer behaviors that seem, more or less, to belong on the same dimension. These definitions will be drawn from various research procedures and measuring instruments. Then I shall cite some of the evidence on which it is possible to base the inference that these behaviors or characteristics are desirable.

Warmth

An example can be drawn from the work of Ryans (1960), who developed a Teacher Characteristics Schedule that included such items as the following: "Pupils can behave themselves without constant supervision," "Most pupils are considerate of the teacher's wishes," and "Most teachers are willing to assume their share of the unpleasant tasks associated with teaching."

Now what is the basis for the proposition that certain patterns of responses to attitude statements of this kind are "desirable?" The answer is that these kinds of attitudes and behaviors tend to be correlated positively with favorable assessments of the trainers by trainees and trained observers, and with trainees' scores on achievement tests. There are other attitude inventories that have been found to correlate positively with favorable mean rating of the trainers by their trainees (Yee, 1967). The items of Ryan's inventory correlated positively with observers' ratings of instructors on all three of his instructor behavior patterns--warm, understanding, friendly vs. aloof, egocentric, and restricted; responsible, businesslike, systematic vs. evading, unplanned, and slipshod; and stimulating, imaginative vs. dull, routine (Ryans, 1960). McGee (1955) found that instructors' scores on the California F Scale correlated .6 with previous ratings of the instructors by trained observers on dimensions like aloof vs. approachable, unresponsible vs. responsive, dominative vs. integrative, and harsh vs. kindly.

In short, a substantial body of evidence supports two conclusions: (a) Trainers differ reliably from one another on a series of measuring instruments that seem to have a great deal in common, (b) These reliable individual differences among trainers are fairly consistently related to various desirable things about trainers.

What term can be applied to the desirable end of this dimension of behaviors and attitudes? Trainers at this desirable end tend to behave approvingly, acceptantly, and supportively; they tend to speak well of their own trainees, trainees in general, and people in general. They tend to like and trust rather than fear other people of all kinds. How they get that way is not our concern at the moment. The point is that it is not impossible to find extremely plausible similarities among the trainer behaviors measured and found desirable by a number of independent investigators working with different methods, instruments, and concepts. Although any single term is inadequate, it seems safe to use the term "warmth." Warmth, operationally defined as indicated above, seems--on the basis of varied research evidence--to be quite defensible as a desirable characteristic of trainer behavior.

Indirectness

To identify a second dimension of trainer behavior, we begin with two of Flanders' categories. His Category 3 is "Accepts or uses ideas of student: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student," and Category 4 is "Ask questions: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer." In the classrooms of teachers that behave in these ways relatively often, one also finds more instances of Category 8: "Student talk-response: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement," and Category 9: "Student talk-initiation: talk by students which they initiate. If 'calling on' student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category."

A second example of this dimension of trainer behavior may be seen in the research on what is called "learning by discovery." This research deals with the question, How much and what kind of guidance should the trainer provide? ...the degree of guidance by the trainer varies from time to time along a continuum, with almost complete direction of what the trainee must do at one extreme to practically no direction at the other. This dimension consists of the degree to which the trainer permits trainees to discover underlying concepts and generalizations for themselves, giving them less rather than more direct guidance. The trainer at the higher level of this dimension realizes that it is not always desirable merely to tell the trainee what you want to know and understand. Rather, it is sometimes better to ask questions, encourage the trainee to become active, seek for himself, use his own ideas, and engage in some trial and error. This kind of training represents a willingness to forbear giving the trainee everything he needs to know; it does not mean abandoning the trainee entirely to his own devices.

Now what is the evidence that this dimension of trainer behavior--exemplified in Flanders' categories, and teaching-by-discovery--has a significant relationship to something educationally desirable? Flanders and Simon (1969) concluded from their examination of a dozen studies that the percentage of statements made by the instructor that make use of ideas and opinions previously expressed by trainees is directly related to average class scores on attitude scales of trainer attractiveness, liking the class, etc., as well as to average achievement scores adjusted for initial ability. Ausubel (1963) reviewed the experiments on learning by discovery and concluded that the furnishing of completely explicit rules is relatively less effective than some degree of arranging for trainees to discover rules for themselves.

It seems safe to say that some use of the guided discovery method, and "indirectness," in training is desirable. Trainers not sensitized to its desirability typically exhibit too little indirectness. As Flanders (1960) put it, "our theory suggests an indirect approach; most teachers use a direct approach."

Cognitive Organization

The third dimension of trainer behavior is more difficult to define operationally. And its connection with desirable outcomes is, despite great plausibility, not as well established empirically. This is the kind of behavior that reflects the trainer's intellectual grasp, or "cognitive organization," of what he is trying to train.

Some studies have dealt with the degree to which the teacher's verbal behavior reflects an understanding of the logical properties of a good definition, explanation, or conditional inference. Others have studied the degree to which the trainer, or his instructional material, provides a set of subject-matter "organizers" that embody "relevant ideational scaffolding," discriminate new material from previously learned material, and integrate it "at a level of abstraction, generally, and inclusiveness which is much higher than that of the learning material itself" (Ausubel, 1963). Similar ideas have been put in such terms as "cognitive structure" (Bruner, 1966), "learning structure" (Gagne, 1965), and "logic tree" (Hickey & Newton, 1964).

Although the general conception of this aspect of training behavior can be identified, operational definitions are had to come by. Perhaps the best operational definitions of such variables must be inferred from the procedures of those who develop programmed instructional materials. These procedures call for behavioral definitions of objectives and detailed "learning structures" (Gagne, 1965) that analyze the steps involved in achieving a "terminal behavior" into hierarchies of subtasks. Gage (1965) illustrated such learning structures in mathematics and science. Glaser and Reynolds (1964) worked out a detailed example for programmed instructional material that involves the sequencing of sub-behaviors.

In some ways, the lessons derived from this kind of technical work on training and learning have implications for curriculum development rather than for training as such. But the curriculum is inevitably shaped through the trainer's behavior in the classroom as well as by the materials that his trainees read. The implications of such instructional research for the behavior of the live trainer in the classroom seem clear: if curricular material should exhibit a valid cognitive organization, so should the behavior of the trainer.

Enthusiasm

Our last example of a sifting of the literature to identify a desirable kind of trainer behavior is one provided by Rosenshine (1970). He reviewed the evidence from a variety of sources on the degree to which the trainer's "enthusiasm" was desirable. Some of the studies reviewed were experiments in which "enthusiasm" was manipulated. In other, correlational, studies, enthusiasm as it occurred "naturally" was rated, counted, or measured with an inventory. In some of the studies, the dependent variable was measured achievement; in others, evaluative ratings of the trainer by his trainees or other independent observers. The varied evidence seemed remarkably consistent in supporting the desirability of trainer enthusiasm. Positive differences between means and positive correlation coefficients appeared far more often than did those indicating a negative relationship between trainer enthusiasm and something desirable about the trainer.

Two examples of experiments will illustrate these findings. Coats and Smidchens (1966) had two 10-minute lessons presented by two instructors in a static, or unenthusiastic fashion (read from a manuscript, with no gestures, eye contact, or inflections), and also in a dynamic, or enthusiastic fashion (delivered from memory, with much inflection, eye contact, gesturing and animation). Tests immediately after the lesson indicated much greater learning from the dynamic lecture. Similarly, Mastin (1963) had 20 instructors lecture on two different topics a week apart--presenting one topic in an "indifferent" manner and the other "enthusiastically." In 19 of the 20 classes, the student's mean achievement was higher for the lesson taught enthusiastically.

These four variables--warmth, indirectness, cognitive organization, and enthusiasm--merely illustrate the kinds of contributions that research on training, in its present early stages, can support. In themselves, these findings are far from startling. Any clever trainee, trainer, or novelist could have told us decades ago about these characteristics of "good" training. But what is important about these tentative conclusions is their basis in empirical research. The ease with which others have told us such truths in the past is matched by their untrustworthiness. Glib insights based on uncontrolled experience can lead us astray. Research on training--the effort to apply scientific method to the description and improvement of training--is much more laborious and usually makes much less interesting reading than the essay of the shrewd, compassionate, and imaginative observer. The same tortoise-hare comparison would have applied in past centuries to research on psychiatry and the writings of phrenologists, to research on chemistry and the writings of alchemists, and so on. In the long run, as humanity has learned, it is safer in matters of this kind to rely on the scientific method. Applying that method to the phenomena and problems of training and trainer behavior is our concern.

SELECTED READING III-2

INTRODUCTION TO TYPE

by
Isabel Briggs Myers

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FOREWORD

The answers you give on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator are not important in themselves. But they serve to indicate basic preferences that have profound effects.

Thre is no right or wrong to these basic preferences. They simply produce different kinds of people who are interested in different things, are good in different fields, and often find it hard to understand each other.

People with preferences opposite to yours tend to be opposite to you in many ways. They are likely to be weak where you are strong, and strong where you are weak. Each type has its own set of strengths and abilities.

An understanding of type in general and of your own type in particular can be of value in dealing with other people, in choosing your vocation, and in deciding on priorities in your life. The following pages provide you with an introduction to type and a chance to verify your own type, as reported by the Indicator and defined by your type formula. The formula shows the perferences you came out with (e.g. ISTJ), and should be checked against the explanation of the separate preferences on page one, the effects of the combinations on page two, and the descriptions of the individual types.

If the description that goes with your type formula makes you feel at home and comfortably understood, your type has been rightly indicated. If not, one or more of the preferences may be wrong. Sometimes people are not conscious of what they actually do prefer. Sometimes they habitually try to ignore their real preference because of admiration for the opposite. In such cases, enough answers may be affected to falsify their type. If your reported type does not feel right to you, look at the types that differ from it by one letter, and see if you can find among them a satisfying recognizable description of yourself.

BASIC PREFERENCES

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is concerned with the valuable differences in personality that result from the way people perceive and the way they judge. We have two opposite ways in which we become aware of things,--through the senses and through intuition. We also have two opposite ways of judging things,--by thinking and by feeling. We use all these processes, but not equally.

Each of us tends to like one process best, use it most, grow most expert at it, and acquire the traits that result from it. But we need both perception and judgment. So if the favorite, best-developed process is a judging one (thinking or feeling), then the second-best process, which serves as auxiliary, must be a perceptive one. Similarly, if the favorite process is a perceptive one (sensing or intuition), then the auxiliary process must be a judging one.

A person's type grows naturally out of the kind of perception and kind of judgment he prefers and how he prefers to use them. The four basic preferences are:

EI Preference
If he prefers to use his favorite process for--

Extraversion, he will use it in the outer world of people and things, in action, making confident use of trial and error.

Introversion, he will use it in the inner world of ideas, liking to reflect at length before acting.

SN Preference
If he prefers to perceive things through--

Sensing, (the five senses), he will tend to be realistic, practical, observant, fun-loving, good at remembering and working with facts.

Intuition, he will tend to value imagination, inspirations and possibilities, and will be good at new ideas, projects and problem solving.

TF Preference
If he prefers to make judgments by means of--

Thinking, he will tend to analyze, weigh the facts, and "think" that impersonal logic is a surer guide than human likes and dislikes.

Feeling, he will tend to sympathize, weigh the personal values, and "feel" that human likes and dislikes are more important than logic.

JP Preference
If he prefers to face the outer world in a--

Judging attitude, using T or F, he will live in a planned, decided, orderly way, aiming to regulate life and control it.

Perceptive attitude, using B or N, he will live in a flexible, spontaneous way, aiming to understand life and adapt to it.

EFFECTS OF THE COMBINATIONS OF PERCEPTION AND JUDGMENT

Either kind of judgment can team up with either kind of perception. Thus four combinations occur. Each combination produces a different set of interests, values, needs, habits of mind and surface traits.

Sensing plus Thinking. The ST people are mainly interested in facts, since facts are what can be collected and verified directly by the senses, by seeing, hearing, touching, etc. And they make decisions on these facts by impersonal analysis, because what they trust is thinking, with its step-by-step process of reasoning from cause to effect, from premise to conclusion.

Sensing plus Feeling. The SF people are also interested in facts, but make their decisions with personal warmth, because what they trust is feeling, with its power to weigh how much things matter to themselves and others.

Intuition plus Feeling. The NF people judge with the same personal warmth. But since they prefer intuition, their interest is not in facts but in possibilities, such as new projects, things that have not happened but might be made to happen, or new truths that are not yet known but might be found out.

Intuition plus Thinking. The NT people share the interest in possibilities. But since they prefer thinking, they approach these with impersonal analysis. Often the possibility they choose is a theoretical, technical or executive one, with the human element more or less ignored.

The columns below present some the results of these combinations.

	ST	SF	NF	NT
People who prefer	SENSING + THINKING	SENSING + FEELING	INTUITION + FEELING	INTUITION + THINKING
focus their attention on	Facts	Facts	Possibilities	Possibilities
and handle these with	Impersonal analysis	Personal warmth	Personal warmth	Impersonal analysis
Thus they tend to be	Practical and matter-of fact	Sociable and friendly	Enthusiastic & insightful	Logical and ingenious
and find scope for their abilities in	Production Construction Accounting Business Economics Law Surgery Etc.	Sales Service Customer relations Welfare work Nursing Gen. practice Etc.	Research Teaching Preaching Counseling Writing Psychology Psychiatry Etc.	Research Science Invention Securities analysis Management Pathology Etc.

These are valuable differences. Each type makes its own contributions to the work of the world. The essential thing is to find out how to make maximum use of one's own abilities.

FAVORITE PROCESS AND AUXILIARY

The middle letters of your type formula show your best two processes, one perceptive and the other judging. The last letter shows whether you use the judging one or the perceptive one in dealing with the outer world. If you are an extravert, the process you will use with the outer world is your favorite process.

If you are an introvert, however, your favorite process is too committed to the inner world of ideas to take much time out for the outer world of people and things. So in dealing with people or things, you rely mainly on your auxiliary process. It is the introvert's auxiliary that determines his habitual attitude toward the outer world and thus makes him come out of J or P on the JP preference.

The favorite process must therefore be determined from the type formula as a whole. In the small Type Table on this page, the favorite process of each type is shown by the underscored letter. The J or P at the end of the formula always describes outer behavior. In extraverts it also describes the favorite process. In introverts it only describes the auxiliary, leaving the favorite process to be inferred.

Type Table

	ST	SF	NF	NT
I--J	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
I--P	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
E--P	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
E--J	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ

This means, among other things, that when you meet an extravert, you meet his favorite process and see the best of him at once. When you meet an introvert, you see mainly his auxiliary process. The best part of him--his favorite process--is not apt to show at first meeting. You discover it only gradually, and often with surprise, when he comes to trust you well enough to invite you into his mind and show you what he is doing there.

All types, introverts and extraverts, have great need for a well-developed auxiliary process. Though the auxiliary never has the strength or authority of the favorite process, it is essential for balance. The introvert needs a good auxiliary he can extravert with, or he will be ineffective in his outer life. Similarly the extravert needs a good auxiliary he can introvert with, or he will be superficial, taking little or no time out for reflection. For all types, the auxiliary supplies the needed balance as to judgment and perception. In types whose favorite process is a judging one, the perceiving auxiliary provides the raw material needed as a basis for judgment. In types whose favorite process is a perceiving one, the judging auxiliary provides the steadiness of purpose needed for making effective use of what is perceived.

The remaining processes, especially the one that most conflicts with the favorite process, are much less developed and reliable. If too much suppressed, they can be disruptive. Like children, they should be given a hearing, not with license to flout the authority of the head of the family, but with a chance to make respected contributions in a joint undertaking, as recommended on p. 16.

The descriptions on pp. 6-13 portray the types as adults, with very good development of the favorite process and a reasonably good auxiliary. Younger versions of all sixteen types in a school setting are described in the short sketches in the big Type Table on the next two pages.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TYPES IN HIGH SCHOOL

SENSING TYPES

		WITH THINKING	WITH FEELING
INTROVERTS	JUDGING	**ISTJ** Serious, quiet, earns his success by earnest concentration and unhurried thoroughness. Logical and orderly in his work and dependable in all he does. Sees to it that everything he touches is well organized. Takes responsibility of his own accord. Makes up his own mind as to what should be accomplished and works toward it steadily, regardless of protests or distractions.	**ISFJ** Quiet, friendly, responsible and conscientious. Works devotedly to meet his obligations and serve his friends and school. Thorough and painstaking, accurate with figures, but needs time to master technical subjects, as reasoning is not his strong point. Patient with detail and routine. Loyal, considerate, concerned with how other people feel even when they are in the wrong.
	PERCEPTIVE	**ISTP** Quiet, reserved, a sort of cool onlooker at life, observing and analyzing it with detached curiosity and unexpected flashes of original humor. Interested mainly in mechanics, in cars, in sports and in business. Exerts himself only as much as he considers actually necessary, even if he happens to be a star athlete.	**ISFP** Retiring, quietly friendly, sensitive, hates argument of any kind, is always too modest about his abilities. Has no wish to be a leader, but is a loyal, willing follower. Puts things off to the last minute and beyond. Never really drives himself about anything, because he enjoys the present moment and does not want it spoiled.
EXTRAVERTS	PERCEPTIVE	**ESTP** Matter-of-fact, doesn't worry or hurry, always has a good time. Likes mechanical things, cars and sports, with friends on the side. A little blunt and insensitive. Can take school or leave it. Won't bother to follow a wordy explanation, but comes alive when there is something real to be worked, handled or taken apart. Can do math and technical stuff when he sees he will need it.	**ESFP** Outgoing, easygoing, uncritical, friendly, very fond of a good time. Enjoys sports and making things, restless if he has to sit still. Knows what's happening and joins in helpfully. Literal-minded, tries to remember rather than to reason, is easily confused by theory. Has good common sense and practical ability, but is not at all interested in study for its own sake.
	JUDGING	**ESTJ** Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact, with a natural head for business. Likes the mechanics of things. Not interested in subjects that he sees no actual use for, but can apply himself when necessary. Is good at organizing and running school activities, but sometimes rubs people the wrong way by ignoring their feelings and viewpoints.	**ESFJ** Warm-hearted, talkative, popular, conscientious, interested in everyone, a born cooperator and active committee member. Has no capacity for analysis or abstract thinking, and so has trouble with technical subjects, but works hard to master the facts in a lesson and win approval. Works best with plenty of praise and encouragement. Always doing something nice for someone in a practical way.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TYPES IN HIGH SCHOOL

INTUITIVES

WITH FEELING	WITH THINKING		
INFJ Gifted and original student who succeeds through combination of intelligence, perseverance, and desire to please. Puts his best efforts into his work because he wouldn't think of doing less than his best. Quiet, conscientious, considerate of others, widely respected if not popular, but suffers socially from unwillingness to compromise where a principle or conviction is involved.	**INTJ** Has a very original mind and a great amount of drive which he uses only when it pleases him. In fields which appeal to his imagination he has a fine power to organize a job or piece of work and carry it through with or without the help of others. He is always sceptical, critical and independent, generally determined, and often stubborn. Can never be driven, seldom led.	INTROVERTS	JUDGING
INFP Particularly enthusiastic about books, reads or tells the parts he likes best to his friends. Interested and responsive in class, always attentive and quick to see what the teacher is leading up to. Has a warm, friendly personality but is not sociable just for the sake of sociability and seldom puts his mind on his possessions or physical surroundings.	**INTP** Quiet, reserved, brilliant in exams, especially in theoretical or scientific subjects. Logical to the point of hair-splitting. Has no capacity for small talk and is uncomfortable at parties. Primarily interested in his studies and wouldn't care to be president of his class. Liked by his teachers for his scholarship and by the few fellow-students who get to know him for himself.		PERCEPTIVE
ENFP Warmly enthusiastic, high-spirited, ingenious, imaginative, can do almost anything that interests him. Quick with a solution for any difficulty and very ready to help people with a problem on their hands. Often relies on his spur-of-the-moment ability to improvise instead of preparing his work in advance. Can usually talk his way out of any jam with charm and ease.	**ENTP** Quick, ingenious, gifted in many lines, lively and stimulating company, alert and outspoken, argues for fun on either side of any question. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems, but tends to neglect routine assignments as a boring waste of time. Turns to one new interest after another. Can always find excellent reasons for whatever he wants.	EXTRAVERTS	PERCEPTIVE
ENFJ Responsive and responsible. Feels a real concern for what others think and want, and tries always to handle things with due regard for the other fellow's feelings and desires. Can lead a group discussion or present a proposal with ease and tact. Sociable, popular, active in school affairs, but puts time enough on his lessons to do good work.	**ENTJ** Hearty, frank, able in studies and a leader in activities. Particularly good in anything requiring reasoning and intelligent talk, like debating or public speaking. Well-informed and keeps adding to his fund of knowledge. May be a bit too positive in matters where his experience has not yet caught up with his self-confidence.		JUDGING

EXTRAVERTED THINKING TYPES
ESTJ and ENTJ

The extraverted thinker uses his thinking to run as much of the world as may be his to run. He has a great respect for impersonal truth, thought-out plans and orderly efficiency. He is analytic, impersonal, objectively critical, and not likely to be convinced by anthing but reasoning. He organizes facts, situations and operations well in advance, and makes a systematic effort to reach his carefully planned objectives on schedule. He believes everybody's conduct should be governed by logic, and governs his own that way so far as he can.

He lives his life according to a definite formula that embodies his basic judgments about the world. Any change in his ways requires a conscious change in the formula.

He enjoys being an executive, and puts a great deal of himself into such a job. He likes to decide what ought to be done and to give the requisite orders. He hates confusion, inefficiency, half-way measures, and anything aimless and ineffective. He can be a crisp disciplinarian, and knows how to be tough when a situation requires toughness.

Being a judging type, he may neglect perception. He needs to stop, look and listen to other people's points of view, especially with people under this authority who can't talk back. This is seldom easy for him. But unless he can do it, he will judge too hastily, without sufficient facts and without enough regard for what his associates think and feel. When he does not make an effort to understand, he will misjudge and antagonize. It pays him to understand.

Feeling (the direct rival of thinking) is his least developed and least manageable process. If too much suppressed, it will gradually build up pressure and explode unexpectedly on quite insufficient provocation. A thinker's feeling needs some positive outlet, the most serviceable one being appreciation of other people's qualities. Appreciation is harder for a thinker than for other types, because he is naturally critical. But if he will put it in his formula, he can develop it, and he will find it a valuable asset on the job as well as in his personal relationships.

ESTJ
With sensing as auxiliary

Sees the realities.
Matter-of-fact, practical, realistic, factually-minded, concerned with here and now. More curious as to new things than new ideas. Prefers to have ideas, plans, etc., based on solid fact. May need an intuitive around, to sell him on the value of of new ideas.

ENTJ
With intuition as auxiliary

Sees the possibilities.
Has more intellectual interest, curiosity for new ideas as such, tolerance for theory, taste for complex problems, insight, vision and concern for long range possibilities. Tends to team up with like-minded intuitives, and may need someone with sensing around, to look after important details.

INTROVERTED THINKING TYPES
ISTP and INTP

An introverted thinker uses his thinking to analyze the world, not to run it. He is primarily interested in the principles underlying things rather than in the things themselves. He organizes ideas and facts,--not situations and people unless he must for the sake of his work. He is inwardly absorbed in his current analysis or problem, persevering with it without dependence on external circumstances.

His outer personality is perceptive, being mostly due to his auxiliary process, either S or N. He is quiet, reserved, detachedly curious and adaptable (though the moment one of his ruling principles is violated he stops adapting.) In the field of ideas he is decisive and sure; socially he may be rather shy except with intimates.

His job should be the working out of the needed principles underlying some problem or operation; then other types can go ahead and operate.

The special problem for this type is to make himself understandable. He wants always to state the exact truth,--and he keeps it so exact and so complicated that few can follow him. If he will only start by scaling things down till they seem to him too simple and obvious to be worth saying, he will get a lot more across in the end.

Unless his perception is developed, he will have too little regard for the people around him, and too little knowledge or experience of the world. His thinking will be done in a vacuum, and nothing much will come of it.

ISTP
With sensing as auxiliary

Sees the realities.
Great capacity for facts and details.
Good at applied science, and at mechanics and the properties of materials and things.
With non-technical interests, uses general principles to bring order out of confused data and meaning out of unorganized facts. May be a jurist, a legislator, or an analyst of markets, sales, securities, or statistics of any kind. Likely to be patient, accurate, good with his hands, fond of sports and outdoors, and have a gift of fun for its own sake.

INTP
With intuition as auxiliary

Sees the possibilities.
Values facts mainly in relation to theory.
Good at pure science, research, mathematics and the more complicated problems of engineering.
With non-technical interests, makes the scholar, teacher, abstract thinker in economics, philosophy, psychology, etc.
As a teacher, he cares more for the subject than for the students.
Likely to have insight, ingenuity, quick understanding, intellectual curiosity, fertility of ideas about problems. More interested in reaching solutions than in putting them into practice.

EXTRAVERTED FEELING TYPES
ESFJ and ENFJ

The extraverted feeling type is concerned chiefly with people. He radiates fellowship, valuing harmonious human contacts above all things. He is friendly, tactful, sympathetic, always able to express the correct feeling. He is particularly warmed by approval and bothered by indifference. He gets much of his security from others' warmth of feeling, and is therefore ready to conform to their views within reasonable limits. He tries to live up to his ideals and is loyal to a respected person, institution or cause. He has a tendency to idealize whatever he admires.

He is at his best in jobs that deal with people: selling, some kinds of direct supervision, teaching, preaching, face-to-face cooperative work, etc. He thinks best when talking with people, and enjoys talk; he has to make a special effort if he is to be brief and businesslike and not let sociability slow him down on the job.

Being a judging type, he likes to have matters decided or settled, but he does not need or want always to settle them himself. He has many definite "shoulds" and "should nots" and may express them freely. He is persevering, conscientious, orderly even in small matters, and inclined to insist that others be the same.

If his perception is underdeveloped or not allowed to influence his judgment, he will jump to conclusions. For lack of first-hand knowledge of a person or situation, he will act upon assumptions, and while he means well, his actions may go wide of the mark. As a trainee, he is apt to do things as he judges they "should" be done, instead of taking time to find out how the organization works or what is wanted. When faced with a disagreeable fact or a criticism that hurts, he may be unable to admit its truth and may seek somehow to escape the issue.

ESFJ
With sensing as auxiliary

Sees the realities.
Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact, concerned with here and now. Interested in material possessions and details of direct experience. Likes to base plans, decisions, etc., upon known facts. Usually adapts excellently to routine.

ENFJ
With intuition as auxiliary

Sees the possibilities.
Has more curiosity for new ideas as such, more insight, vision and concern for future possibilities. More interested in books and more tolerant of theory. Likely to have a gift of expression, but may like to use it in speaking to audiences rather than in writing.

INTROVERTED FEELING TYPES
ISFP and INFP

An introverted feeling type has as much wealth of feeling as an extraverted feeling type, but uses it differently. He cares more deeply about fewer things. He has his warm side inside (like a fur-lined coat). It is quite as warm but not as obvious; it may hardly show till you get past his reserve. He has, too, a great faithfulness to duty and obligations. He chooses his final values without reference to the judgment of outsiders, and sticks to them with passionate conviction. He finds these inner loyalties and ideals hard to talk about, but they govern his life.

His outer personality is mostly due to his auxiliary process, either S or N, and so is perceptive. He is tolerant, open-minded, understanding, flexible and adaptable (though when one of his inner loyalties is threatened he will not given an inch). Except for his work's sake, he has little wish to impress or dominate. The contacts he prizes are with people who understand his values and the goals he is working toward.

He is twice as good when working at a job he believes in, since his feeling for it puts added energy behind his efforts. He wants his work to contribute to something that matters to him, perhaps to human understanding or happiness or health, or perhaps to the perfecting of some product or undertaking. He wants to have a purpose beyond his paycheck, no matter how big the check. He is a perfectionist wherever his feeling is engaged, and is usually happiest at some individual work involving personal values. With high ability, he may be good in literature, art, science and psychology.

This type's problem is that he may feel so marked a contrast between inner ideal and outer reality as to burden him with a sense of inadequacy, even when he is being quite as effective as the other types. If he finds no channel of expression for his ideals, they make him too sensitive and vulnerable, with dwindling confidence in life and in himself. If he does find active expression for his ideals, they may give him a high degree of self-confident drive, especially if he has intuition to help him solve whatever difficulties he encounters.

If his perceptive process is undeveloped, he will have so little sense of reality that he will aspire to the impossible and achieve frustratingly little.

ISFP
With sensing as auxiliary

Sees the realities.
Mildly resembles an extraverted sensing type, especially in seeing the needs of the moment and adapting to them. Loves nature and animals. Consistently underestimates and understates himself. Works well at jobs requiring devotion.

INFP
With intuition as auxiliary

Sees the possibilities.
Mildly resembles an extraverted intuitive, particularly in liking to concentrate on a project and disliking all details not relevant to any deep interest. Marked by insight and long range vision, curious about new ideas, interested in books and language. Likely to have a gift of expression, especially in writing. Ingenious and persuasive on the subject of his enthusiasms, which are quiet but deep-rooted.

EXTRAVERTED SENSING TYPES
ESTP and ESFP

This combination makes the adaptable realist, who goodnaturedly accepts and uses the facts around him, whatever they are. He knows what they are, since he notices and remembers more than any other type. He knows what goes on, who wants what, who doesn't, and usually why. And he does not fight those facts. There is a sort of effortless economy in the way he goes at a situation, never uselessly bucking the line.

Often he can get other people to adapt, too. Being a perceptive type, he looks for the satisfying solution, instead of trying to impose any "should" or "must" of his own, and people generally like him well enough to consider any compromise that he thinks "might work." He in unprejudiced, open-minded, and usually patient, easy-going and tolerant of everyone (including himself). He enjoys life. He doesn't get wrought up. Thus he may be very good at easing a tense situation and pulling conflicting factions together.

His expert sensing may show itself: (a) in a gift for machinery and the running of it, or the handling of tools and materials for craft or artistic purposes, or in the recognition of quality, line, color, texture or detail; (b) in a capacity for exact facts, even when separate and unrelated, and the ability to absorb, remember and apply great numbers of them, like the boy who remembers all the batting averages; (c) in a continuous awareness, an ability to see the need of the moment and turn easily to meet it, as a crack athlete will in a game.

Being a realist, he gets far more from first-hand experience than from books, is more effective on the job than on written tests, and is doubly effective when he is on familiar ground. Seeing the value of new ideas, theories and possibilities may well come a bit hard, because intuition is his least developed process.

If his judgment is not sufficiently developed to give him any character or stick-to-itiveness, he may adapt mainly to his own love of a good time, and be lazy, unstable, generally shallow,--a "grasshopper" personality.

ESTP
With thinking as auxiliary

Has more grasp of underlying principles, and finds it easier to master the mathematic or theoretical side of things. Especially apt to be interested in machinery. More willing to crack down when the situation really calls for it.

ESFP
With feeling as auxiliary

Has more interest in people, and more tact and sympathy with their feelings. Especially easy in handling human contacts. Possibly too easy in matters of discipline. More likely to possess artistis taste and judgment.

INTROVERTED SENSING TYPES
ISTJ and ISFJ

This combination makes the super-dependable. He has a complete, realistic, practical respect for the facts. He absorbs, remembers and uses an immense number of them. He likes everything put on a factual basis, clearly stated, and not too unfamiliar or complex. Only when you know him very well do you discover that behind his outer calm he is looking at the facts from an intensely individual angle, often a very droll one. His private reaction, the way a thing will strike him, is quite unpredictable, but what he actually does about it will be sound and sensible.

His outer personality is judging, being mainly derived from his auxiliary process, either T or F. Therefore, in addition to his basic realism he has the stability of a judging type. He is the most thorough of all the types, painstaking, systematic, hard-working, and patient with detail and routine. His extreme perserverance tends to stabilize everyting with which he is connected. He does not enter into things impulsively, but once in, he is very hard to distract, discourage or stop. He does not quit unless experience convinces him he is wrong.

As an administrator, his practical judgment and memory for detail make him conservative, consistent, able to cite cases to support his evaluations of men, methods, etc. He is an obvious choice for the responsibilities of maintenance; if necessary, he will do jobs himself rather than leave them undone. He will go to any amount of trouble if he "can see the need of it," but he does hate to be saddled with a policy that "doesn't make sense."

It is hard for him to see any sense in needs that differ widely from his own. He is likely to dismiss them offhand as nonessentials. But in a specific case, where he sees something mattering a lot to somebody right before his eyes, he may come to sympathize pretty generously with the desire while still holding it unaccountable.

If his judgment is not developed, he may stop with his inward reaction to facts and not get around to dealing with them at all, which will make him silent, ineffective and almost impossible to understand.

ISTJ
With thinking as auxiliary

Mildly resembles an extraverted thinking type.
Emphasizes analysis, logic, and decisiveness. As an executive he may have some difficulties with people unless he takes extra pains to understand and appreciate.

ISFJ
With feeling as auxiliary

Mildly resembles an extraverted feeling type.
Emphasizes loyalty and consideration and the common welfare. He has more tact and sympathy, more interest in people and concern for their feelings. Likely to have artistic taste and judgment.

EXTRAVERTED INTUITIVE TYPES
ENTP and ENFP

The extraverted intuitive is the enthusiastic innovator. He is always seeing new possibilities--new ways of doing things, or quite new and fascinating things that might be done--and he goes all out in pursuit of them. He has a lot of imagination and initiative for originating projects, and a lot of impulsive energy for carrying them out. He is wholly confident of the worth of his inspirations, tireless with the problems involved, and ingenious with the difficulties. He gets so interested in the current project that he thinks of little else.

He gets other people interested too. Being a perceptive type, he aims to understand people rather than to judge them; often, by putting his mind to it, he achieves an uncanny knowledge of what makes them tick, and uses this to win support for his project. He adapts to other people in the way he presents his objective, but never to the point of giving it up. His faith in his intuition makes him too independent and individualistic to be a conformist, but he keeps a lively circle of contacts through his versatility and his easy interest in almost everything.

In his quieter moments, his auxiliary gives him some balancing introversion and adds depth to the insights supplied by his intuition. At its best, his insight, tempered by judgment, may amount to wisdom.

His trouble is that he hates uninspired routine and finds it remarkably hard to apply himself to humdrum detail unconnected with any major interest. Worse yet, even his projects begin to seem routine and lose their attraction as soon as he has solved the problem and reached plain sailing. He may discipline himself to carry through, but he is happiest and most effective in jobs that permit one project after another, with somebody else taking over as soon as the situation is well in hand.

If his judgment and self-discipline are undeveloped, he will immerse himself in ill-chosen projects, fail to finish them, and squander his inspirations, abilities and energies in irrelevant and half-done jobs. At his worst, he will be unstable, undependable, fickle and easily discouraged.

ENTP
With thinking as auxiliary

More independent, more analytical and critical of his inspirations, more impersonal in his relations to people, more apt to consider their effect on his project rather than their feelings. May be an inventor, scientist, troubleshooter, promoter, or almost anything that it interests him to be.

ENFP
With feeling as auxiliary

More enthusiastic, more concerned with people and skillful in handling them. Has remarkable insight into their possibilities and interest in their development. May be inspired and inspiring teacher, scientist, artist, advertising man, salesman, or almost anything it interests him to be.

INTROVERTED INTUITIVE TYPES
INTJ and INFJ

The introverted intuitive is the outstanding innovator in the field of ideas, principles and systems of thought. He trusts his own intuitive insight as to the true relationships and meanings of things, regardless of established authority or popularly accepted beliefs. His faith in his inner vision of the possibilities is such that he can remove mountains--and often does. In the process he may drive others, or oppose them, as hard as his own inspirations drive him. Problems only stimulate him; the impossible takes a little longer but not much.

His outer personality is judging, being mainly due to his auxiliary, either T or F. Thus he backs up his original insight with the determination, perserverance and enduring purpose of a judging type. He wants his ideas worked out in practice, applied and accepted, and spends any time and effort necessary to that end.

The danger for the type arises from his single-minded concentration. He sees his goal so clearly that he may miss other things that he ought to see even though they conflict with that goal: the rights, interests, feelings and points of view of other people; or facts, conditions and counter forces that do exist and must be reckoned with. He should talk over his plans with an extraverted sensing type and really listen to him.

He is outstandingly effective in scientific research and engineering design where his boldly ingenious ideas have to meet and fit reality. He always needs some such reality-check, but the very boldness of his ideas may be of immense value in any field and should not be smothered in a routine job full of details.

If his judgment is undeveloped, he cannot criticize his own inner vision, and he tends to reject judgments from outside without really hearing them. As a result, he cannot shape his inspirations into effective action, and may appear only as a visionary or crank.

INTJ
With thinking as auxiliary

Most individualistic and most independent of all the types. Resembles extraverted thinker, both in his organizing ability and in the danger of ignoring other people's feelings and views. Needs to make a real effort to understand and appreciate. Likely to be an effective, relentless reorganizer. Can be an efficient executive rich in ideas.

INFJ
With feeling as auxiliary

Less obviously individualistic, more apt to win cooperation than to demand it. Somewhat resembles extraverted feeling type, both in sympathetic handling of people and in the danger of ignoring harsh and uncongenial facts.

May apply his ingenuity to problems of human welfare, on his own and in his own and in his own way.

Can be a good executive, especially where affairs can be conducted on a personal level.

Selected Reading III-2, Continued

EFFECTS OF EACH PREFERENCE IN WORK SITUATIONS

INTROVERTS	EXTRAVERTS
Like quiet for concentration.	Like variety and action.
Tend to be careful with details, dislike sweeping statements.	Tend to be faster, dislike complicated procedures.
Have trouble remembering names and faces.	Are often good at greeting people.
Tend not to mind working on one project for a long time uninterruptedly.	Are often impatient with long, slow jobs.
Are interested in the idea behind their their job.	Are interested in the results of their job, in getting it done, and how other people do it.
Dislike telephone intrusions and interruptions.	Often don't mind the interruption.
Like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting.	Often act quickly, sometimes without thinking.
Work contentedly alone.	Like to have people around.
Have some problems communicating.	Usually communicate well.

FEELING TYPES	THINKING TYPES
Tend to be very aware of other people and their feelings.	Are relatively unemotional and uninterested in people'e feelings.
Enjoy pleasing people, even in unimportant things.	May hurt people's feelings without knowing it.
Like harmony. Efficiency may be badly disturbed by office feuds.	Like analysis and putting things into logical order. Can get along without harmony.
Often let decisions be influenced by their own or other people's personal likes and wishes.	Tend to decide impersonally, sometimes ignoring people's wishes.
Need occasional praise.	Need to be treated fairly.
Dislike telling people unpleasant things.	Are able to reprimand people or fire them when necessary.

Relate well to most people.	Tend to relate well only to other thinking types.
Tend to be sympathetic.	May seem hard-hearted.

EFFECTS OF EACH PREFERENCE IN WORK SITUATIONS

INTUITIVES

Like solving new problems.

Dislike doing the same thing over and and over again.

Enjoy learning a new skill more than than using it.

Work in bursts of energy powered by by enthusiasm, with slack periods in between.

Frequently jump to conclusions.

Are patient with complicated situations.

Are impatient with routine details.

Follow their inspirations, good or bad.

Often tend to make errors of fact.

Dislike taking time for precision.

SENSING TYPES

Dislike new problems unless there are standard ways to solve them.

Like an established routine.

Enjoy using skills already learned more than learning new ones.

Work more steadily, with realistic idea of how long it will take.

Must usually work all the way through to to reach a conclusion.

Are impatient when the details get complicated.

Are patient with routine details.

Rarely trust inspirations, and don't usually get inspired.

Seldom make errors of fact.

Tend to be good at precise work.

PERCEPTIVES

Tend to be good at adapting to changing situations.

Don't mind leaving things open for alterations.

May have trouble making decisions.

May start too many projects and have difficulty in finishing them.

May postpone unpleasant jobs.

Want to know all about a new job.

Tend to be curious and welcome new light on a thing, situation or person.

JUDGING TYPES

Best when they can plan their work and follow the plan.

Like to get things settled and wrapped up.

May decide things too quickly.

May dislike to interrupt the project they are on for a more urgent one.

May not notice new things that need to be done.

Want only the essentials needed to get on with it.

Tend to be satisfied once they reach a judgment on a thing, situation or person.

6

CONTROLLED USE OF PERCEPTION AND JUDGMENT

Whatever your type, two things are important. It is important for your to trust and develop the kind of perception and the kind of judgment that come most naturally to you. And it is important for you to have control of these, so that you can focus them on the right things at the right time and can also shut them off at times when the opposite kind of perception or judgment is more suitable.

The essence of control is to be able to use one process at a time, each in its proper field, without interference by any other process. You can test your control--and improve it--by taking the following steps whenever you have a problem.

1. Exert your sensing in facing the facts, being realistic, seeing exactly what the situation is, what you are doing, what other people are doing. Try to put aside all wishful thinking or sentiment that may blind you to the realities. Ask yourself how the situation would look to a wise, impartial bystander who was not personally involved.

2. Exert your intuition in discovering all the possibilities, all the ways in which you might change the situation or your handling of it or other people's attitudes about it. Try to put aside your natural assumption that you have been doing the one and only obviously right thing.

3. Exert your thinking-judgment in an impersonal analysis of cause and effect, of what-follows-from-what. Include all the consequences of the alternative solutions, unpleasant as well as pleasant, those that weigh against the solution you prefer as well as those in its favor. Try to count the full cost of everything. Examine every misgiving which you may have been suppressing out of loyalty to someone, or out of liking for something, or out of reluctance to change a stand once taken or admit yourself wrong.

4. Exert your feeling-judgment in weighing just how deeply you care about the things that will be gained or lost by each of the alternative solutions. Make a fresh appraisal, trying not to let the temporary outweigh the permanent, however agreeable or disagreeable the immediate prospect may be. Consider also how the other people concerned will feel about the various outcomes, even if you think it unreasonable of them. And include their feelings and your own feelings along with the other facts, in deciding which solution will work out best.

Your final decision will of course be made in accord with the aims of your favorite process. But it will have a better-than-usual chance of being right.

You will not like all the steps in this exercise. The ones that use your best processes are rather fun. The other steps are harder, and may even be unpleasant. Thus if your favorite process is feeling, the attempt to face all the consequences of anything endangers your peace. If your favorite process is thinking, then weighing how everyone feels is an awkward, burdensome task. The harder steps are well worth the effort, but you may need help in taking them.

What makes the hard steps hard is that they call for the strengths of types opposite to yours. When your problem is important, you may be wise to consult somebody who actually has these strengths. It is startling, but educational, to see how different a situation looks to a person of opposite type. And it will help you understand and use the neglected opposite side of yourself.

MUTUAL USEFULNESS OF OPPOSITE TYPES

The clearest vision of the future comes only from an intuitive, the most practical realism only from a sensing type, the most incisive analysis only from a thinker, and the most skillful handling of people only from a feeling type. Success for any enterprise demands a variety of types, each in the right place.

Opposite types can supplement each other in any joint undertaking. When two people approach a problem from opposite sides, each sees things not visible to the other. Unfortunately, they seldom see each other's point of view. Too much oppositeness makes it hard for people to work well together. The best teamwork is usually done by people who differ on one or two preferences only. This much difference is useful, and the two or three preferences they have in common help them to understand each other and communicate.

When extreme opposites must work or live together, an understanding of type does much to lessen the friction. Disagreement is less irritating when Smith recognizes that it would hardly be normal for Jones to agree. Jones is not being willfully contrary; he is simply being an opposite type. And opposite types can be tremendously useful to each other. The lists below show some of the specific ways.

INTUITIVE NEEDS A SENSING TYPE:

To bring up pertinent facts

To remember things that weren't relevant at the time they happened

To check records, read proof, score tests

To read the fine print in a contract

To notice what should be attended to

To inspect

To keep track of detail

To have patience

SENSING TYPE NEEDS AN INTUITIVE:

To see the possibilities

To supply ingenuity on problems

To deal with a complexity having too many imponderables

To explain what another intuitive is talking about

To look far ahead

To furnish new ideas

To "spark" things that seem impossible

FEELING TYPE NEEDS A THINKER:

To analyze

To organize

To find the flaws in advance

To reform what needs reforming

THINKER NEEDS A FEELING TYPE:

To persuade

To conciliate

To forecast how others will feel

To arouse enthusiasm

To weigh "the law and the evidence"
To hold consistently to a policy
To fire people when necessary
To stand firm against opposition
To teach
To sell
To advertise
To appreciate the thinker himself

TYPE TABLE

		SENSING TYPES		INTUITIVES			
		WITH THINKING	WITH FEELING	WITH FEELING	WITH THINKING		
INTROVERTS	JUDGING	**ISTJ** Introverted Sensing with thinking	**ISFJ** Introverted Sensing with feeling	**INFJ** Introverted Intuition with feeling	**INTJ** Introverted Intuition with thinking	JUDGING	INTROVERTS
	PERCEPTIVE	**ISTP** Introverted Thinking with sensing	**ISFP** Introverted Feeling with sensing	**INFP** Introverted Feeling with intuition	**INTP** Introverted Thinking with intuition	PERCEPTIVE	
EXTRAVERTS	PERCEPTIVE	**ESTP** Extraverted Sensing with thinking	**ESFP** Extraverted Sensing with feeling	**ENFP** Extraverted Intuition with feeling	**ENTP** Extraverted Intuition with thinking	PERCEPTIVE	EXTRAVERTS
	JUDGING	**ESTJ** Extraverted Thinking with sensing	**ESFJ** Extraverted Feeling with sensing	**ENFJ** Extraverted Feeling with intuition	**ENTJ** Extraverted Thinking with intuition	JUDGING	

DIRECTIONS FOR HAND SCORING THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR

General Comments

Scoring an Indicator produces four "preference scores," one for each of the four indices: EI, SN, TF, and JP. Each score consists of a letter showing the direction of that preference, followed by a number showing its strength. A person's four preferences make his type. If these scores are E 21, N 09, T 01, and J 35, for instance, he is described as ENTJ.

For the purpose of this module, you need be concerned with only a portion of the somewhat awesome-looking answer sheet. The three areas to be filled out are:

- Answers (done by test-taker)
- Personal information in upper left-hand corner (done by test-taker)
- Small box headed "Points" and "Scores" in upper right side (done by the scorer)

Ignore the other two scoring areas at the top of the answer sheet.

Steps in Scoring

Review answer form for accurate marking:

- Review each form for duplicate answers. Only item 68 is allowed two responses.
- For items 9 and 60, if B and C are both marked, count B and cross out C.
- If other items have more than one response marked, cross out both answers.

Count the points for each category:

The categories, identified by the letters in the small box on the answer sheet, represent the following pairs:

- E and I--Extravert, Introvert
- S and N--Sensor and Intuitive (N is used because "I" is already taken for "Introvert")
- T and F--Thinker and Feeler
- J and P--Judger and Perceiver

Because each pair contains opposite concepts, the test taker is identified as one or one or the other for each pair. However, this is only a preference. This means a person leans toward being an Extravert or Introvert, for example; he isn't totally E or I. The number of points for any given category indicates the degree of the preference.

To find the point total in each of the four categories, simply place the appropriate scoring key (must be ordered from ETS) over the answer sheet and count the number of marks which appear in the holes. Some questions are "weighted," or count more than others. The weighted questions appear on the answer key (the holes bordered in red) and have "2" written above them. Each of these count two points; the others count one point. After counting the points for the E scoring key, for example, enter the total points in the E blank (small box, upper right side of the answer sheet). Follow the same procedure with the rest of the scoring keys, entering the appropriate number of points.

Check for possible errors in counting. Two common mistakes are:

1) Leaving out a response while counting. To avoid a possible error here, count twice.

2) Using the male stencil* (answer key) for T and F categories in scoring females, or vice versa. To avoid this error, separate the answer sheets by the sex of the participant. Then do the T and F scores first, using the appropriate female or male stencil in each case.

Enter the preference points in the scoring box

After entering the appropriate number of points after each letter (left side of the scoring box), subtract the smaller number from the larger number in each pair. For example, in the sample box shown on the following page, 17 minus 6 gives an E of 11 points.

SCORING BOX FOR JOHN DOE

POINTS	SCORES
E 17 I 6	______
S 10 N 14	______
T 12 F 12	______
J 21 P 3	______
TYPE	

---

*The distinctions between male and female responses to one's environment are fading rapidly in today's culture. We hope the separation of M and F scores will be unnecessary in the next revision of the Myers-Briggs instrument.

Use the scoring table (see the last page of these directions) to convert the differenc in points to the preference score. (The conversion is necessary to insure there will always be a number other than zero for each item. Each of us has some of each type.) For example, in the column for "E's" in the scoring table, the preference score for a difference of 11 is 21. The score on EI in the example is therefore 21

POINTS				SCORES	
E	17	I	6	E	21
S	10	N	14	N	09
T	12	F	12	T	01
J	21	P	3	J	35
TYPE ENTJ					

Where the difference in points is zero, the preference score is 01. (See bottom of scoring table for male/female scoring on the TF pair.) In the example shown, the test taker is a male so he is given a T instead of an F score of 01.*

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*The distinctions between male and female responses to one's environment are fading rapidly in today's culture. We hope the separation of M and F scores will be unnecessary in the next revision of the Myers-Briggs instrument.

When all four preference scores have been entered, write the type formula under the word "Type" in the scoring box. In the example used above, the test taker's type is ENTJ, or Extravert, Intuitive, Thinker, Judger.

SCORING TABLE TO CONVERT POINTS INTO PREFERENCE SCORE (MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR TEST)

TRANSFORMATION OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN POINT-TOTALS INTO PREFERENCE SCORES

Male: I, N, T, or P
Female: I, N, F, or P

Diff. in Points		Pref. Score
1	=	03
2		05
3	=	07
4		09
5	=	11
6		13
7	=	15
8		17
9	=	19
10		21
11	=	23
12		25
13	=	27
14		29
15	=	31
16		33
17	=	35
18		37
19	=	39
20		41
21	=	43
22		45
23	=	47
24		49
25	=	51
26		53
27	=	55
28		57
29	=	59
30		61

Male: E, S, F, or J
Female: E, S, F, or J

Diff. in Points		Pref. Score
1	=	01
2		03
3	=	05
4		07
5	=	09
6		11
7	=	13
8		15
9	=	17
10		19
11	=	21
12		23
13	=	25
14		27
15	=	29
16		31
17	=	33
18		35
19	=	37
20		39
21	=	41
22		43
23	=	45
24		47
25	=	49
26		51
27	=	53
28		55
29	=	57
30		59
31	=	61
32		63
33	=	65
34		67

When difference is zero, the preference socre is:

For male	I 01, N 01, T, 01, or P 01
For females	I 01, N 01, F, 01, or P 01

SELECTED READING III-3

TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY*

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*From the 1979 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, J.E. Jones and J.W. Pfeiffer, eds. University Associates, Inc., La Jolla, CA.

TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY (TSI)

Richard Brostrom

Training people for leadership roles in learning groups can be difficult, particularly when one consults the often conflicting "how to" literature on the subject. The classic debate between *behaviorists* (emphasizing control, shaping, prompting, reinforcing, token economy) and *humanists* (advocating freedom, spontaneity, student-centering, individuality, feelings) is just one example of basic differences.

A person new to training and teaching can be confused by these separate advocacies or feel obliged to follow an unnatural "teaching" script simply because a text says it is *the* way.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY (TSI)

The Training Style Inventory is designed as an orientation experience—one that explores various beliefs about the teaching-learning process and helps a trainer/teacher form decisions about the use of various methods and techniques. More than just techniques, however, participants learn about themselves and their personal impact on others in the teaching-learning setting. The goal is to develop a flexible set of alternative procedures and personal skills appropriate for learners, teachers, and trainers and for the task itself.

The TSI consists of fifteen stem phrases, each of which has four completion statements. The completion items correspond to four major instructional orientations: the behaviorist, structuralist, functionalist, and humanist approaches.

The inventory requires that each of the four statements in each group be ranked, with 4 points given to the most preferred response, 3 to the next preferred, 2 to the next preferred, and 1 to the least preferred response. Items are keyed with the small letters "a" through "h." All "a" and "e" items measure the behaviorist orientation. Items keyed "b" or "f" relate to the structuralist orientation; those keyed "c" or "g" concern the functionalist orientation; and those keyed "d" or "h" measure the humanist approach. The four responses to each item are randomized, in order to avoid obvious response bias.

SUGGESTED DESIGN

The administration of the TSI falls into two categories: prework and the session itself.

Prework

Two suggestions that are helpful:

1. The Training Style Inventory (TSI) is best administered prior to the training experience. Participants need not score and interpret at this point, however.
2. The facilitator may want to assign a single reading selected from one of the theoretical models—behaviorism, structuralism, functionalism, or humanism—to each of the participants. (Many sources exist, including Skinner, 1974—behaviorism; Mager, 1975—structuralism; McClelland, 1976—functionalism; Rogers, 1969—humanism.) Each participant should come to the session prepared to summarize the main thoughts contained in the article and to respond, from the perspective of that author, to issues raised in the activity. (An interesting technique is to give each participant the appropriate "name card" of the assigned author. The opposition that develops on certain issues causes a healthy, even entertaining, "conflict" and facilitates the discussion of the various theoretical positions.)

The Session

The following sequence is useful during the session itself.

1. The training experience is begun by asking participants to identify *what* is really being taught in their groups and *how* that particular content would most effectively be taught. The responses are displayed on newsprint or chalkboard, and the group is invited to go beyond a superficial response to a level of genuine introspection, for example, on how one actually develops attitudes.
2. The discussion is concluded by suggesting that the group look more closely at what the experts have to say. The facilitator gives a brief orientation to the various theoretical approaches. He suggests how the theories differ, in general terms, and how these differences are expressed in training behaviors—the contrast between behaviorists and humanists, for example.
3. Participants then score the TSI and share their initial reactions. Clarity will develop with the individual presentations and feedback, helping participants see the accuracy or inaccuracy of the profiles for them.
4. Participants make their individual presentations, "teaching" the group about the learning approach they have studied. It is suggested that the order of presentations start with the behaviorist orientation and continue through the structuralist and functionalist, ending with the humanist. Videotaping of individuals as they make their presentations can add the dimension of personal feedback.
5. After each presentation, the group is asked to reflect on both the *content* of what was presented and the *process*. The facilitator may elect to use a film featuring an expert describing that particular orientation.
6. The group's process eventually emerges as an exciting dimension of learning experiences—about the time that the group moves into the content on the humanist orientation to learning. People are usually ready for spontaneous experiencing and interacting at this point.

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TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY

Richard Brostrom

Instructions: For each of the following fifteen phrases printed in italics, rank the four statements given in the order that completes the phrase to your best satisfaction. Give your *most* favored statement a rank of *4*; your next favored, *3*; your next, *2*; and your *least* favored statement, a rank of *1*. Place your ranking for each statement in the square to the right of that statement.

1. *In planning to conduct training, I am most likely to*
   - survey the problem and develop valid exercises based on my findings. ☐c
   - begin with a lesson plan—specify what I want to teach, when, and how. ☐b
   - pinpoint the results I want and construct a program that will almost run itself. ☐a
   - consider the areas of greatest concern to the participants—and plan to deal with them regardless of what they may be. ☐d
2. *People learn best*
   - when they are free to explore—without the constraints of a "system." ☐h
   - when it is in their selfish interest to do so. ☐g
   - from someone who knows what he or she is talking about. ☐f
   - when conditions are right—and they have an opportunity for practice and repetition. ☐e
3. *The purpose of training should be*
   - to develop the participants' competency and mastery of specific skills. ☐a
   - to transfer needed information to the learner in the most efficient way. ☐b
   - to establish the learner's capacity to solve his or her own problems. ☐c
   - to facilitate certain insights on the part of the participants. ☐d
4. *Most of what people know*
   - they have acquired through a systematic educational process. ☐f
   - they have learned by experience in trial-and-error fashion. ☐e
   - they have gained through a natural progression of self-discovery rather than some "teaching" process. ☐h
   - is a result of consciously pursuing their goals—solving problems as they go. ☐g
5. *Decisions on what to be covered in a training event*
   - must be based on careful analysis of the task beforehand. ☐a
   - should be made as the learning process goes along and the learners show their innate interests and abilities. ☐d
   - should be mutually derived by the learner and teacher. ☐c
   - are based on what learners now know and must know at the conclusion of the event. ☐b
6. *Good trainers start*
   - by gaining proficiency in the methods and processes of training—how to teach—and then bringing in the content. ☐f
   - by recognizing that learners are highly motivated and capable of directing their own learning—if they have the opportunity. ☐g
   - by mastering the field themselves and becoming effective "models" for the learners. ☐h
   - by considering the end behaviors they are looking for and the most efficient ways of producing them in learners. ☐e
7. *As a trainer, I am least successful in situations*
   - where learners are passive, untalkative, and expect the trainer to do all the work. ☐d
   - that are unstructured, with learning objectives that are unclear. ☐a
   - where there is no right answer. ☐b
   - when I am teaching abstractions, rather than concrete, specific ideas. ☐c
8. *In a training event, I try to create*
   - the real world—problems and all—and develop capacities for dealing with it. ☐g
   - a learning climate that facilitates self-discovery, expression, and interaction. ☐h
   - a stimulating environment that attracts and holds the learners and moves them systematically toward the objective. ☐e
   - an interesting array of resources of all kinds—books, materials, etc.—directed at the learners' needs. ☐f
9. *Emotions in the learning process*
   - are utilized by the skillful trainer to accomplish the learning objective. ☐a
   - have potential if the trainer can capture the learners' attention. ☐b
   - will propel the learner in many directions, which the trainer may follow and support. ☐d
   - provide energy that must be focused on problems or questions. ☐c
10. *Teaching methods*
    - should be relatively flexible but present real challenges to the learner. ☐g
    - should be determined by the subject. ☐f

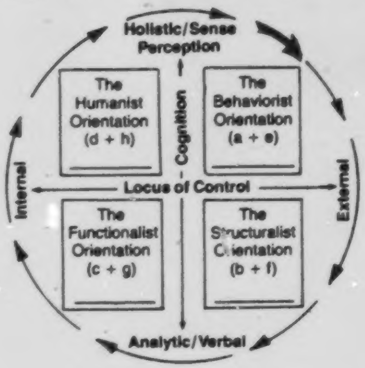
- must emphasize trial and feedback. ☐ e
- must allow freedom for the individual learner. ☐ h

11. *When learners are uninterested in a subject, it is probably because*
    - they do not see the benefit. ☐ c
    - they are not ready to learn it. ☐ d
    - the instructor has not adequately prepared the lesson. ☐ b
    - of poor planning. ☐ a
12. *Learners are all different:*
    - some will learn, but others may be better suited for another activity. ☐ h
    - the best approach is to teach the basics well and put learners on their own after that. ☐ g
    - with an effective training design, most tasks can be mastered by the majority of learners. ☐ e
    - an experienced teacher, properly organized, can overcome most difficulties. ☐ f
13. *Evaluation of instruction*
    - is done by learners regardless of the instructor; the instructor should be a sounding board. ☐ d
    - should be built into the system, so that learners continually receive feedback and adjust their performance accordingly. ☐ a
    - is ultimately decided when the student encounters a problem and successfully resolves it. ☐ c
    - should be based on pre-established learning objectives and done at the end of instruction to determine learning gains. ☐ b
14. *Learners seem to have the most regard for a trainer who*
    - taught them something, regardless of how painful. ☐ g
    - guided them through experiences with well-directed feedback. ☐ e
    - systematically led them step-by-step. ☐ f
    - inspired them and indirectly influenced their lives. ☐ h
15. *In the end, if learners have not learned,*
    - the trainer has not taught. ☐ b
    - they should repeat the experience. ☐ a
    - maybe it was not worth learning. ☐ c
    - it may be unfortunate, but not everyone can succeed at all tasks. ☐ d

TRAINING STYLE INVENTORY SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

Instructions: Sum all the numbers that you placed in the "a" and "e" boxes in the Training Style Inventory. Place this total in the "a + e" box in the figure below. This is your behaviorist score. Do the same for the following totals: "b" and "f"; "c" and "g"; "d" and "h." Then study the interpretive material as it applies to your profile.

People deal with wholes, not parts—intuitively, emotionally, physically. They move spontaneously, "unpredictably," instinctively, unconsciously, nonlineally (right-brain activity).


Holistic/Sense Perception
Cognition
The Humanist Orientation (d + h)
The Behaviorist Orientation (a + e)
Internal
Locus of Control
External
The Functionalist Orientation (c + g)
The Structuralist Orientation (b + f)
Analytic/Verbal

People prefer independence, autonomy, and the chance to control their own destinies; they are internally directed.

People respond to forces around them. They prefer guidance from others or the environment; they are externally directed.

People's minds work "rationally," intellectually, scientifically. Information is processed systematically, sequentially, for storage (memory) and retrieval (language) (left-brain activity).

Questions for Self-Study

1. What type of *learner* learns most effectively in the behaviorist orientation? the structuralist? the functionalist? the humanist?
2. What type of *learning tasks* should be undertaken with the techniques of the behaviorist? the structuralist? the functionalist? the humanist? Give examples. What tasks should *not* be undertaken by each? Consider such tasks as manual skills, information transfer, problem solving, creativity, etc.
3. Is it possible to incorporate in a single learning situation a training role that prescribes supportive, directive, assertive, and reflective emphases? Think of examples. What might make this assignment difficult?
4. Consider how the qualities of the various training styles may be developed.
5. Examine the model that integrates the orientations to learning on two axes, a cognitive mode axis (holistic to analytic) and a locus of control axis (external to internal).
    a. Is this representation essentially correct? Why or why not?
    b. Considering the stages of growth of people (for example, from infancy to maturity) and assuming that the model is correct, what would it indicate as the most suitable learning orientation in various stages?
    c. Considering the stages of development of a training group, what would the model imply that the trainer's role should be, both early in the process and later as the group develops?
    d. What are some other applications of the model?

TSI STYLE CONTRASTS

	Behaviorist	**Structuralist**	**Functionalist**	**Humanist**
Orientation to Teaching-Learning	New behavior can be caused and "shaped" with well-designed structures around the learner.	The mind is like a computer; the teacher is the programmer.	People learn best by doing, and they will do best what they want to do. People will learn what is practical.	Learning is self-directed discovery. People are natural and unfold (like a flower) if others do not inhibit the process.
Basic Assumptions	Training designers select the desired end behaviors and proceed to engineer a reinforcement schedule that systematically encourages learners' progress toward those goals. Imaginative new machinery has made learning fun and thinking unnecessary. Learners often control the speed.	Content properly organized and fed bit-by-bit to learners will be retained in memory. Criterion tests will verify the effectiveness of teaching. The teacher "keeps people awake" while simultaneously entering data — a much-envied skill	The learner must be willing (or motivated) by the process or the product, otherwise it is useless to try teaching. Performance "on-the-job" is the true test. Opportunity, self-direction, thinking, achieving results, and recognition are important.	"Anything that can be taught to another is relatively inconsequential" (Rogers). Significant learning leads to insight and understanding of self and others. Being a better human being is considered a a valid learning goal. Can be a very inefficient, time-consuming process.
Key Words and Processes	• stimulus-response • practice • shaping • prompting • behavior modification • pinpointing • habit formation • reward and punishment • teaching machines • environmental design • successive approximation • sensitizing • extinction • token economy • mastery	• task analysis • lesson planning • information mapping • chaining • sequencing • memory • audiovisual media • presentation techniques • standards • association • evaluation • measuring instruments • objectives • recitation	• problem solving • simulation • "hands-on" • reasoning • learner involvement • reality-based consequences • achievement • failure • confidence • motivation • thinking • competence • discipline • recognition • feedback • working	• freedom • individuality • ambiguity • uncertainty • awareness • spontaneity • mutuality • equality • openness • interaction • experiential learning • congruence • authenticity • listening • cooperation • feelings
Interpersonal Style	*Supportive:* emphasis on controlling and predicting the learner and learning outcomes — cooperative, stimulus-response mentalities are valued. Process is product centered.	*Directive:* planning, organization, presentation, and evaluation are featured. Process is teacher centered.	*Assertive:* a problem-focused, conditional, confrontational climate—striving, stretching, achieving. Process is task oriented and learner centered.	*Reflective:* authenticity, equality, and acceptance mark relationship. Process is relationship centered.
Strengths	"The Doctor": clear, precise, and deliberate; low risk; careful preparation; emotionally attentive; complete security for learners; a trust builder; everything "arranged"; protective; patient; in control	"The Expert": informative; thorough; certain; systematic; stimulating; good audio-visual techniques; well rehearsed; strong leader; powerful; expressive; dramatic; entertaining	"The Coach": emphasizes purpose; challenges learners; realistic; lets people perform and make mistakes; takes risks; gives feedback; builds confidence; persuasive; gives opportunity and recognition	"The Counselor": sensitive; empathic; open; spontaneous; creative; a "mirror"; non-evaluative; accepting; responsive to learners; facilitative; interactive; helpful
Limitations	"The Manipulator": fosters dependence; overprotective; controlling; manipulative "for their own good"; sugar-coating; hypocritical agreeing; deceptive assurances; withholds data	"The Elitist": preoccupied with means, image, or structure rather than results; ignores affective variables; inflexible (must follow lesson plan); dichotomous (black or white) thinking; superior	"Sink or Swim": ends justify means; loses patience with slow learners; intimidating; insensitive; competitive; overly task oriented; opportunistic, return-on-investment mentality	"The Fuzzy Thinker"; vague directions; abstract, esoteric, or personal content; lacks performance criteria; unconcerned with clock time; poor control of group; resists "teaching"; appears unprepared

SELECTED READING III-4

WHAT TYPE OF TRAINER ARE YOU?

by
Pip Baum

WHAT TYPE OF TRAINER ARE YOU?

by

Pip Baum

Trainers often develop very strong personal styles over time based upon such things as how they view adult learning, their own experiences with education, and which network news program they watch. Some predominant styles have emerged. Here are some examples in which you might recognize elements of your own style.

"The Professor"

This trainer received rigorous training as a child, and now the tables are turned; deep down he disdains training techniques, hates newsprint and tape, and prefers chalk and blackboards. He avoids experiential exercises at all costs, and perspires when he has to be in one. He lectures a lot, keeps discussion to a minimum, and can cite research that says people learn better when they have desks.

"The Street Wise"

This trainer lets trainees know he's "been there" wherever "there" may have been. He doesn't put much stock in facts, and suspects the government of conspiracy to destroy treatment programs. Can actually survive for days on coffee and chewing gum. Will pronounce heroin "hair-on" depending on what the training group is like.

"The Trainer's Trainer"

The Trainer's Trainer was born with a marker in his hand and was wrapped in swaddling newsprint. Usually goes through several rolls of masking tape a day even when not training, and believes that substance abuse trainers are a separate species and should speak their own language: he can be heard referring to "time, task, and turf," and responds to everyday greetings with "Hear ya" or "Right... Right." Programs are always "delivered to" and "received well by" the trainees, although they wanted "more time." This trainer loves to "process" for hours, preferably down the street over drinks.

"The Jet Setter"

The Jet Setter has been IN THE FIELD for years and now has his own consulting biz. Usually carries a briefcase with a plane ticket in it (even if he came by train), wears workshirts, and has a tan from just having done "a gig on the coast." He never pays attention to the manuals because his own material is superior. If he takes the $100 a day, he's doing you a favor.

"The Experiential Exerciser"

This trainer does the Reader's Digest version of the lecture and moves quickly into the experiential exercise (in fact, he owns a book of 1001 of them). Has trainees on their feet a lot talking about their values (caution: if he makes trainees massage each other, you know the program will be the pits). He's usually into some human potential group like ARICA, and will need to know your sign. He reassures people who can't "get into" the exercises, but secretly thinks they're uptight. To spot this trainer, look for the person in the room who's nodding empathicly.

"The Novice"

The novice wants to do the job right and is always on site by 7:30 am with newsprint he made up over the weekend while everyone else was out partying. Spends a lot of time rushing around the training site making sure the video is working. Can be counted on to know how many chairs are needed and will ask for feedback on room preparation, especially once he finds out what "turf" is. If he's not reading the manual for the sixth time, he's probably off making copies of participant's names and addresses to send out to everyone. Thinks lead trainers are gods.

COMPENSATION TECHNIQUES FOR SUBSTANDARD RECALL INCIDENTS IN TRAINING (THE FUDGE FACTOR)

by

Pip Baum

Although it has been said by some that "once you are a trainer, all you need is a manual," there are times when you are called upon to impart knowledge that you don't really know very much about. For example, there was the CT:STCS trainer whose counseling experience consisted of having once given advice to her brother in 1968. Sometimes it's just difficult to remember everything; there was the Women In Treatment trainer who kept referring to the client as "He" and the A.I.T.P. trainer who said that manic-depression meant being depressed all the time. Let's face it, sometimes it's even hard to remember the name of the office you're working for. Since these things happen to everyone, here are some helpful techniques you can use to maintain your credibility.

The "Double Talk" or "Word Salad" Technique

This is a technique which has been perfected by many proposal writers and all politicians. Take a number of key phrases or terms and mix them together with an abstruse syntax. No one will know what you said but it will sound good. If really in doubt, mumble--but do it assertively.

Use Lots of Lists

Make up newsprint with long lists of points, no matter how minor, and then read the lists. Make enough so you won't have any time left to elaborate. Since trainees always copy lists, questions will only arise if they can't read your writing.

Be Creative

Talk about clients you never had, programs (leave them unnamed) you never worked for, training events you never ran, and books you never read. Think these up ahead of time or steal examples from other trainers.

Know How to Handle Questions

If a participant asks a question you should know the answer to, but don't, there are a number of things you can say. For example, if a trainee asks, "On whose theories is the CT:STCS course based?" say, "Good question, let's get back to it later" or "Does someone else want to answer that?" or "No one really knows."

Carry Books

Bring books with you relating to the training program to give the impression you're engaged in ongoing research. Or bring a book on quantum mechanics and people will assume you know a lot about everything.

Use Compliments

Humble yourself. Use phrases like, "That's a very good point" or "You probably all know this already..." or "You're the folks who have to struggle with this everyday."

One that always makes a hit is, "I really like training in this Region because people here are so much more knowledgeable." This will make them feel good, and they won't challenge you very much. It's for this reason that some trainers always eat lunch with their trainees, but this is risky becuase they tend to probe into your background.

Have a Good Copout

If your back is really against the wall, and you can't come up with anything, tell them you've just come back from three weeks training on the road and you're "just plain beat" and "drawing a lot of blanks." You can claim that you're sick, but then you run the risk of getting caught at night in the bar. If you play it right, though, they'll feel sorry for you, and the rest of the program will be a breeze.

SELECTED READING III-5

PASSAGES FOR TRAINERS: DEFINING AND REDEFINING OUR ROLE

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Here's a probing and refreshingly useful look at the development stages trainers go through. Plus results of a landmark study of trainer's values and interests

Passages for trainers:

Defining and redefining our role

by Patricia A. McLagan

Passages are a hot topic today. Why this burgeoning interest in adult development through lives and careers? Probably because we live longer, have more self-actualizing goals, are faced with more rapid obsolescence and change, and are finding more opportunities within and across careers. Certainly, we in the training field are affected. Some of us have even tried to use developmental concepts as a basis for designing our programs. But, generally, we trainers stop short of applying the "passages" concept to ourselves and our careers.

With this in mind, let's examine our own career "passages" in light of several adult developmental theories that are not only partial bases for the trainer developmental stages I'll present, but are also [illegible] knowledge pieces for us as developers of adults. Then let's look at the career stages that training and development professionals go through as we grow in and with our profession. And, finally, we'll try to create a new competency awareness that captures the best and most important parts of each career stage.

To begin, I'll venture an opinion: We do pass through several career stages that can be defined and described. I think that these stages parallel the adult developmental stages that today's most credible developmental theorists describe.

Four of the most prominent theorists are the following:

Jane Loevinger, who has summarized many developmental theories into a six-stage model, the last four stages of which are particularly relevant to us. She says that adults pass through stages dominated by:

Conformism: Values and self-evaluation depend on social mores (what others think);

Conscientiousness: Values and self-evaluation depend on independent, i.e. scientific or professional standards of excellence (what the data support);

Autonomy: Individually referenced values are paramount (what I think, based on my own experience);

Integration: Integrating conflicting ideas and creating new ones (what I and others, who may have different needs but a broad experience base for doing the right thing, have concluded).

Larry Kohlberg, who focuses on the shift from "other-directed" to "self-directed" standards and says that adults pass through (and sometimes get bogged down in):

An Approval Stage: What is good is what pleases others (similar to Loevinger's "conformist" state);

A Rule Stage: Activities and results are good because they are valued and valuable in themselves and do not depend on people holding and marketing them;

A Social Contracts Stage: What's good varies among independent, mature, and perhaps very different individuals are the basis for any generalization about what's best to do (a more flexible picture of morality than the "approval" or "rule" stages);

A Wisdom Stage: What is best is based on wide-ranging personal experiences that have led to logical, universal, consistent, and creative conclusions about what must be done in any situation.

Gail Sheehy, who talks about development as a function of age and says that in our adult years we go through stages of:

Provisional Adulthood: We play to the role expectations of our referent groups;

Rooting and Extending: We zero in on the work itself, broaden ourselves technically, and see achievement as a key goal;

The Deadline Decade: Individual life purpose and self-acceptance come to the fore;

Renewal and Resignation: Integrating life's contradictions and accepting oneself are the major emphasis (another perspective on Loevinger's "integration" and Kohlberg's "wisdom" stages).

Gene Dalton and Paul Thompson, who, in their studies of engineers in several companies, observed four distinct career segments:

An Apprenticeship Stage: Engineers

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establish themselves in a new environment, are assigned parts of projects, and depend primarily on others for evaluation of their work (Loevinger's "conformist," Kohlberg's "approval," Sheehy's "provisional adulthood" stages);

A Specialist Stage: The engineer establishes technical credibility and concentrates on mastering an area of technical expertise (Loevinger's "conscientiousness," Kohlberg's "rule" and Sheehy's "rooting and extending" stages);

A Mentor Stage: The established engineer begins to look outward to other engineers, their needs, and his or her ability to help them learn the trade (Loevinger's "autonomy," Kohlberg's "social contract," and Sheehy's "deadline decade");

A Leader Stage: Engineers integrate the technical and other functions of the organization and make their influence felt.

Now what does all this have to do with us and our own professional development? Just this:

We, too, seem to go through stages that parallel the ones I just described as we move through our careers. In fact, in our work as training and development professionals, we appear to go through *four* career stages, each marked by different:

- motivators and key values,
- task focuses,
- views of change, and
- views of our change-agent role.

Few people fit totally into any one stage, of course, and most of us switch back and forth among stages rather than moving through them in a straight line. But, I do believe that our movement throughout our career is generally from Stage One through Stage Four.

Stage One:
The Trainer-Centered Stage

In our early training and development days, most of us are primarily concerned about our platform image—probably because most new trainers spend considerable time in the classroom, where speaking ability is a visible competence yardstick. We devote much time in this phase building our personal image—beefing up presentation skills, becoming more comfortable with groups, handling questions coolly and effectively. We are, remember, going through a relatively insecure "conformist" (Loevinger), "approval-oriented" (Kohlberg), "provisional trainerhood" (Sheehy), "apprenticeship" (Thompson and Dalton) phase, where what others think of us and how they evaluate us are our key performance measures. Because our philosophy of change is based on salesmanship and personal influence, try to fill the charismatic role that such a view implies.

Once we have achieved a certain comfort level with presentation situations and other group leadership demands, another set of needs becomes important. We recognize that there is much more to training and development work than presenting. So, with a few teaching experiences under our belts, we're ready to focus more intensely on other areas in training and development work. We move to Stage Two.

Stage Two:
The Program-Centered Stage

At this point, the science of training and development becomes crucial. Just as the engineers in Dalton's and Thompson's studies concentrated, in their second career stage, on becoming "technical specialists," so do we. We likewise show the same kinds of concerns described in Sheehy's "rooting and extending" stage, where the primary concerns are work basics and broadening the technical understanding and mastery of the job.

Our intensified emphasis on technical excellence—which, in case you're tracking these parallels, resembles Loevinger's "conscientiousness" stage and Kohlberg's "rule" stage—can lead us in two major directions. We may aim for excellence in either *subject matter* or design, or perhaps in both. The concern for subject matter prompts us to spend more time researching and organizing content. Concern for design sees us working primarily on improving our objectives, our materials and activity design, our development techniques, and our use of alternative teaching methods and media.

Accompanying both the content and design concerns are similar achievement motivations (to become a specialist, an expert) and similar attitudes toward change ("If I research well, develop well, present rational and organized information, people will change!"). We see our change-agent role less as "charismatic leader" (the change approach of Stage One) than as "specialist."

Stage Three:
The Results-Centered Stage

For us in training and development, mid-life crisis focuses, I think, on this question: Just as the interviewees in Sheehy's book *Passages* experienced mid-life "authenticity" crises where they asked themselves, "Why am I doing this?," we, at mid-career, ask ourselves, "What do I want to accomplish beyond just delivering a good program?"

STAGE I: THE TRAINER-CENTERED STAGE

Key Motivator: looking good

Task Focuses:
- presentation skills
- comfort with groups
- handling questions

Change Approach: persuasion

Personal Influence Vehicle: charisma, selling skills

STAGE II: THE PROGRAM-CENTERED STAGE

Key Motivator: achievement, technical skills mastery

Task Focuses:
- researching content
- organizing subject matter
- preparing objectives
- using media appropriately
- designing materials

Change Approach: rationality

Personal Influence Vehicle: expertise

STAGE III: THE RESULTS-CENTERED STAGE

Key Motivator: facilitate long-term change

Task Focuses:
- helping individual solve problems
- applying adult learning principles
- counseling
- organizational needs analysis
- climate assessment
- joint planning

Change Approach: joint problem solving

Personal Influence Vehicle: facilitation skills

STAGE IV: THE INTEGRATION-CREATIVITY STAGE

Key Motivation: affect the total practice of HRD

Task Focuses:
- systematize HRD
- share ideas with the profession
- create new HRD approaches

Change Approach: futuristic

Personal Influence Vehicle: social power (position power, expertise)

This is a crisis each of us faces in our own way. Some of us leave for more "fulfilling" work elsewhere. Others maintain a "status quo" and settle for Stage One and Two satisfactions. A few of us, however, use this "crisis of impact" as a base for re-examining

Continued on next page.

Passages for trainers

Continued.

and revitalizing our view of the nature and purpose of our work.

Those who opt for the last response usually enter Stage Three, the Results-Centered Stage. As in Stage Two, there are two tracks we can follow in our quest to have impact. One focuses on facilitating change in individual learners, the other on having longer-term impact on groups and organizations. Those of us who travel the "individual" route to adult education and counseling begin to pay more attention to adult learning principles, counseling techniques, and ways of helping individuals set goals, solve problems, and change. Those of us who stress "organization impact" in this stage have the same "results" concern but different focuses; we spend more time doing organizational needs analyses, examining group climate, doing group problem solving, and planning organization improvement.

In both instances, however, Stage Two trainer developers begin to view the change process and our role in it quite differently than before. We see change as a collaboratively planned and implemented process, where learners and organizations work together toward greater personal and organizational effectiveness, and where "development specialists" are change agents through our ability to facilitate the collaboration.

Not so ironically, this impact stage we experience in our careers resembles Kohlberg's "social contracts" stage, Loevinger's "autonomy" stage (which stresses the individual's rights to make decisions for himself), Dalton's and Thompson's "mentoring"

In TRAINING's first-of-its-kind national survey, trainers list their greatest strengths, report how they value their own time, and tell how they measure their own success

What trainers value most

In the accompanying article, Pat McLagan suggests that training and development professionals experience different passages as they move through their careers. But at what times do trainers really exhibit the characteristics of each career stage? How do they see their strengths, measure their success, and use their time? In an attempt to find the answers to these questions, TRAINING Magazine joined McLagan & Associates, Inc., to survey trainers' values and interests. The survey paired statements representing the four career stages and asked respondents to choose statements that best describe their work.

One thousand questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of training specialists and managers of training in a variety of types and sizes of organizations. Of the 358 trainers who responded, 56.1% were managers and 43.1% education specialists. 13.7% had two years or less experience as a training and development professional, 27.1% had three to five years experience, 24.3% had five to ten years experience, and 34.9% of the respondents identified themselves as having more than ten years experience in the field. It should be pointed out that a survey on trainer values and interests may attract more attention from those who have been in the field for a few years and have developed strong awareness of professional values and interests, a fact that probably accounts for the relatively low number of responses in the two years or less category.

Time: What do trainers feel is the best use of their time? Respondents to the TRAINING survey— as a group— ranked the *best* use of their time as follows:

- "Considering how projects fit into the total system and planning for long-range effects on the system" (a Stage IV, Integration concern)
- "Doing everything I can to understand what the learners in my programs need and want to learn" (a Stage III, Learning Results concern)
- "Updating myself so I can constantly improve the programs I teach" (a Stage II, Program concern)
- "Preparing well so that my program delivery skills are at their peak" (a Stage I, Delivery concern)

However, preference for the Stage I response decreased with years in the business.*

Particularly interesting— and one of the most significant results of the study— is the increasing preference of the Stage III over the Stage I response with increasing years in the business:

	0-2	3-5	6-10	10
Best time use is preparing to deliver good presentations (Stage I response)	30.6%	23.7%	13.8%	12.8%
Best time is understanding learner needs (Stage III response)	69.4%	76.3%	86.2%	87.2%

New trainers apparently do feel more of a pinch to perform well in the training room—although they also place a very high value on meeting learner needs—in fact than do their more experienced colleagues. The profession in general, at least as it's represented by our respondent group, places the highest overall value on "helping" people learn and on integrating training into the rest of the organization.

Perceptions of best use of time also predictably vary with job title. Managers show a greater preference for the later stage than do education specialists who have no managerial responsibilities.

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Stage I	38.3%	14.7%
Stage IV	61.7%	85.3%

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Stage III	68.8%	35.6%
Stage IV	31.2%	64.4%

stage (which views the engineer's primary role at this stage as a "helper" function), and Sheehy's "deadline decade," in which adults face their major life crises of impact.

If Stages One and Two are the "head" of our theory, Stage Three is undoubtedly the "heart." Both kinds of concerns (for technical excellence and for impact) are necessary, but a really optimal merging of the two requires a significant amount of professional and personal maturity. I think that maturity takes time to develop and is acquired by cycling through the developmental stages. More about this a bit later.

Stage Four: The Integration/Creativity Stage

There is yet another stage that can be part of our careers. In this fourth phase, the total practice of human resources development in our organizations and in our profession itself is foremost. Armed with the experience, knowledge, and skills we've acquired in previous stages, we are in a position in Stage Four to "integrate" (remember Loevinger's highest stage), base decisions more on "wisdom" than guesswork (see Kohlberg), reconcile many contradictory theories and practices (see Sheehy), and "influence" beyond our personal span of control and contact (Thompson and Dalton).

In our desire to affect the total practice of HRD and, perhaps, even the direction of the profession itself, we work to integrate development practices in the organization (to create curricula rather than isolated pro-

Continued on next page.

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Stage II	57.4%	36.1%
Stage IV	42.6%	63.9%

Success. Here again, *all* respondents say they favor higher career stage standards. When asked to indicate what they consider the "key measurement of *success* in their work," the total group ranks responses as follows: (listed below from most to least preferred):

1. Participants' demonstration of self-initiated change (Stage III, Results centered)
2. The trainer's influence on the training profession as a whole (Stage IV, Integration centered)
3. The trainer's image as a well-researched, well-organized and credible information source (Stage II, Program centered)
4. Participants' view of the trainer as skilled in delivery (Stage I, Delivery centered)

Again, though, some interesting differences among groups emerge. Preferences for Stage II over Stage I increase with years in the business—up to 10 years:

	0-2	3-5	6-10	10
Stage I	40.8%	30.9%	31.0%	54.4%
Stage II	59.2%	69.1%	69.0%	45.6%

Then, concern for "delivery image" escalates significantly. Why? After 10 years, do trainers work with higher levels in the organization and therefore become more concerned about "image"? At that time do some go through a critical reaffirmation that they want to work in the training room—and so begin to reexamine their delivery style?

Whatever it is that accounts for the more experienced (10 years plus) trainers' preference for Stage I over II as a success measure, it is significantly overridden when Stage IV is an alternative:

	0-2	3-5	6-10	10
Stage I	59.2%	55.7%	51.7%	39.2%
Stage IV	40.8%	44.3%	48.3%	60.8%

Strength: All groups again favor Stage III responses, ranking preferences in the following order:

- My greatest strength is my ability to help people discover and learn (Stage III, Learning Results centered)
- My greatest strength is my ability to see the big picture of human resources development (Stage IV, Integration centered)
- My greatest strength is my skill at presenting material well (Stage I, Delivery centered)
- My depth of subject matter knowledge (Stage II, Program centered)

Fewer see Stage III as a strength than see it as a success criterion, though 75% of all respondents see Stage III as a success goal, but only 45% see it as their major strength.

Apparently, many trainers have a high goal of helping people change but don't feel they are as strong in that capability as their success standards require.

As with responses to questions about best use of time and key success measures, managers indicate a consistently greater preference for later stage responses than do education specialists:

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Greater strenth is Stage II	49.6%	29.3%
Greater strength is Stage IV	50.4%	70.7%

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Greater strength is Stage I	49.6%	30.4%
Greater strength is Stage IV	50.4%	69.6%

	Ed. Specialist	Manager
Greater strength is Stage III	81.6%	60.7%
Greater strength is Stage IV	18.4%	39.3%

What does all this say about trainers' values and interests?

First, as a group, trainers place a very high value on helping people learn (Stage III)—but don't feel their skills are as strong in Stage III as their standards demand. Based on the self-report picture of trainers that we get from this survey, the training profession overall may need to build greater facility in the counseling, learning facilitation, helping people change areas that are the critical capabilities suggested in their Stage III "strength" and "success" questions in this questionnaire.

Secondly, respondents do not show a clear preference for Stage I through IV as a function of years in the business—in fact, all groups favor higher stage responses in all three categories. There is, however, an increasing tendency to choose Stage III and IV type responses with years in the business.

Also, managers place much greater emphasis on Stage III and IV responses than do the education specialists who responded here. The *job* itself apparently has a key effect on how time, success, and strength are viewed—an obvious observation, but one that might cause us to ask how we encourage non-managers to develop or broaden later stage views.

*All results reported in this article are significant using chi square.

Passages for trainers

Continued.

grams, to introduce an "everybody's-responsible-for-development" philosophy, to link OD and education at the program and structural levels, not just the project levels). In the belief that we have a responsibility to the profession to do so, we may spend more time sharing ideas through professional channels. We are also in a position to influence our organizations to create new HRD approaches and to take us more seriously as indispensible contributors to organizational effectiveness and human growth and development.

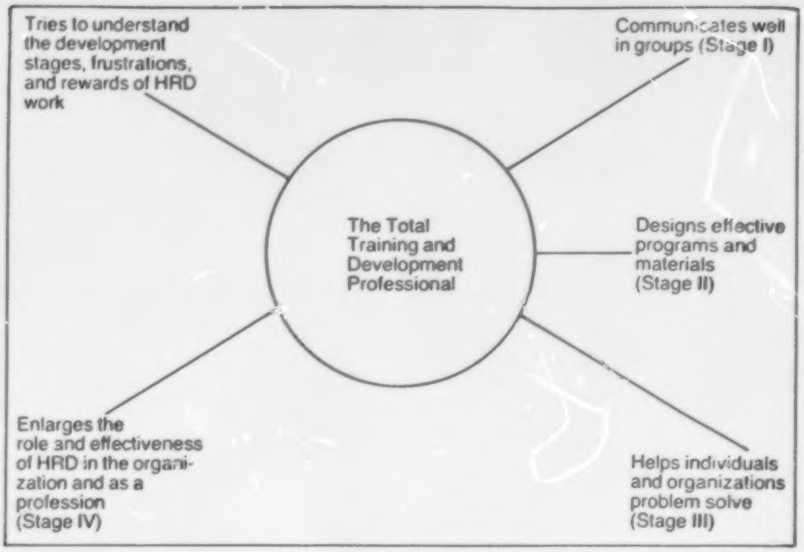
Obviously, such global impact requires position power, a reputation for technical and consultative excellence, and high levels of self-esteem. Our effectiveness in this stage— in fact, the degree to which we enter it— is directly proportional to our reputation, position, and self-confidence.

Our view of change and our role in the process shifts once again as we establish ourselves in Stage Four. Armed with "expert" and "position" power, we begin to take more futuristic tacks than in the past. We help create "ideals" of future HRD practices and develop strategies for raising the development consciousness of entire organizations and, perhaps, of the profession itself. Then we position and retro-plan to achieve our goals. The results of such an approach in the earlier career stages might have been considered unrealistic, even immature. Now, people with resources to help us get things done are more likely to collaborate with us to bring such "visions" to fruition.

When HRD concerns are integral to the planning and decision processes of an organization— when we work at the right or left hand of top management—we know we've got Stage Four represented in some way at the top.

Our careers in total

It would be simplistic to maintain that career progression for us is a linear process, that we move smoothly from Stages One through Four. More likely, exhibit some of the characteristics and concerns of each stage at any point in time. But the general trend is, I believe, from "trainer-centered" to an "integration-focused" approach to our work and our professional role—although we may recycle our major emphasis for a variety of reasons at different times. (I know, for example, that my concern for my "presentation style" intensified when I moved into the national speaking arena. You may have experienced mini-recyclings through the stages when your major audiences shifted, too.)


Tries to understand the development stages, frustrations, and rewards of HRD work
Communicates well in groups (Stage I)
The Total Training and Development Professional
Designs effective programs and materials (Stage II)
Enlarges the role and effectiveness of HRD in the organization and as a profession (Stage IV)
Helps individuals and organizations problem solve (Stage III)

The totality of what our work and roles involve is, I think, the sum of all the stages. And being all things is certainly the ultimate goal, if we want the highest results our profession is capable of helping organizations and individuals achieve.

Some of us, of course, will never get involved with all four stages. Some will shortcut Stage Two, for example, and never really master the design, content, and other technical aspects of our work. For most of our careers, we will emphasize the group facilitation skills of Stage Three, perhaps. Others will do the opposite, becoming excellent technicians but remaining in Stage Two for most or all of our training and development careers. Others of us will remain in Stage One, buoyed up by our speaking acumen and supported by the fact that most learners respond positively— for awhile, at least— to dynamic speakers who do most of the work for them.

Many of us will be blocked in our attempts to grow within current organizations. I've observed this blockage especially between Stages Two and Three, where the HRD professional begins to push hard for impact and is pushed back by an organization that fears or doesn't know how to work with a "change agent" who wants to see results.

Many of us will find or have already found that Stage Four is a particularly tough stage to enter because organizations have not, for the most part, positioned the human resource development function at a high enough level for Stage Four impact to easily occur. True, more and more organizations are letting their strong HRD people into higher decision-making chairs: but, for the most part, we face a "level" problem that filters our communications with the "top of the house." This is compounded by the fact that we are still a "becoming" profession, looking for competency models that describe what we (should) do and for development experiences that can help us shortcut our passage through the stages to more comprehensive levels of excellence and contribution.

Entry into Stage Four and passage through the others will undoubtedly be easier once we have more executive-level support and more development opportunities available to us. For now, however, current Stage Four trainer/developers are pioneering the broader influence efforts. In their ground-breaking, they face more difficult times than will those HRD people who later move into the higher level jobs these pioneers are creating.

Obviously, we have an exciting and important mission. In these times when planned learning and change are receiving increased attention and considerable lip service, we can help link work and learning in such a way that everyone— individuals and organizations— benefits beyond their current expectations.

In order to accomplish our mission, though, we need to know where our current personal career perspective is. Based on that self-awareness, we can set goals, strategize for our own growth, and better deal with the frustrations and opportunities that our organizations, our profession, and our own development put in our path.

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SELECTED READING III-6

THE CO-TRAINING RELATIONSHIP

THE CO-TRAINING RELATIONSHIP

The co-training relationship should demonstrate a nonjudgmental, nonblaming expression of mutual responsibility and respect. When conflict arises based on differing points of view, the co-trainers show through their behavior that, although differences may exist, there is a genuine appreciation and acceptance of each other that underlies all interactions. Trainers bring to any course the result of their experiences, their beliefs, their reactions, and their feelings about themselves and their roles. Before the training begins, trainers need to examine their own and each other's attitudes about the subject matter in the course. They need to share their expectations and personal limitations; to compare their reactions to the resource papers; and to discuss how each trainer will handle issues if, and when, they arise. They should explore the areas in which they feel confident and those in which they feel vulnerable. If the co-trainers know each other well, they may discuss how their relationship could contribute both positively and negatively to the course. Some of the possible advantages and disadvantages of co-training follow.

ADVANTAGES**

- Complementarity of styles

  E.g., one trainer may have a group process focus, while the other may focus on interpersonal process; or, one trainer may concentrate on didactic information, while the other handles process or experiential activity.

- Ability to better deal with difficult occurrences

  E.g., one trainer can help an individual work through a highly emotional reaction, while the other trainer concentrates on helping with concomitant heightened emotional climate in the group.

- Professional and personal development

  E.g., feedback on personal and professional issues from a colleague, and support and space in that one person is not required to always be "on," facilitating or delivering content.

- Heightened background and experience brought to the training event

  E.g., collaboration between two trainers brings more to the event than either one alone would have brought.

- Two (or more) models are provided participants as well as a model for a two (or more) person relationship.

**The lists of advantages and disadvantages have been adapted from Pfeiffer and Jones, "Cofacilitating," The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators.

- Reduced or dissipated dependency on the part of the participants when leadership is shared.
- Improved pacing when observation and facilitation is shared and when timing of events is up to two trainers.
- More rounded point of view in the biases can be offset and issues can be focused more sharply as a result of "two heads."

DISADVANTAGES

- Different theoretical, technical, and personal orientations that make for working at cross purposes or without mutual respect.
- Extra effort is required to develop an effective co-training relationship.
- Competition between co-facilitators for popularity.
- Threat to a participant who sees co-trainers as colluding with each other against him or her when they are seen debriefing.
- Overtraining in that too much activity does not allow the group's own process to create the learning and helping of each other.
- Protectiveness of the trainer role and reinforcement of blind spots, particularly when there is a similiarity in their theory and technique.
- Provision of poor models if the co-training relationship is not based on trust, respect, and an ability to work towards similar goals and with a like-sense of how much responsibility should be left with the group.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEAM BUILDING TO CAPITALIZE ON ADVANTAGES AND AVOID THE DISADVANTAGES

To facilitate learning and to provide the proper support for participants, the trainers should do some "team building" before actual training begins. This team building combines planning, rehearsing, developing interpersonal relationships, and specifying certain nitty-gritty details. This includes such activities as assigning tasks, practicing exercises, and rehearsing lectures. Some suggestions for co-trainers are:

- Share orientations and experiences.
- Solicit feedback frequently.
- Test assumptions.
- Determine how comfortable each is in an authority (subordinate) position and how each handles participants (men) (women) in subordinate (superior) positions.
- Define the training goals for the event trainers are about to co-facilitate.

- Discuss experiences in drug abuse and in training; talk about expectations for the course.
- Discuss training styles. Be aware of each other's personal styles, how they are complementary or conflicting:
    - Favored interventions
    - Fast or slow intervention rhythm
    - Nurturing or confronting style.
- Outline responsibilities for each part of a module.
- Talk through each session together. Review the presentations. Discuss anticipated problems.
- Explore how comfortable each feels in expressing feelings, and what kinds of events and models elicit these feelings.
- Discuss how to maintain a balance between subjectivity and objectivity during the course.
- Discuss how to deal with the group when it manipulates one of the trainers to express what it cannot.
- Each trainer ask him or herself: How can I facilitate and support the aims of the training course? Are my followership skills as good as my leadership abilities?
- Practice giving support to one another; act out a support relationship in the context of delivering one session.
- Examine the ways issues can be handled by each trainer such as:
    - Someone talking too much
    - A silent group
    - An individual is silent for a long time
    - Someone cries
    - Someone comes late
    - Back-home data are discussed extensively
    - One person is scapegoated
    - Someone or the group discusses sexual feelings about a trainer or another group member.

CO-TRAINING TIPS

Trainers should keep in mind the following points during pre-session planning and while training the course:

- The trainers' relationship sets a model for the group.
  - Demonstrate support for each other.
  - Switch roles when providing support to members of the training group.
  - When it seems appropriate, articulate trainers' differing points of view.
- Trainers should help each other clarify points.
- Specific, descriptive, nonblaming responses should be used.
- Whenever one trainer is in charge of an activity, other trainers should take a supportive role, attending to group dynamics and intervening when it seems appropriate. Avoid interrupting the other trainer except to clarify some point that seems confusing to the group.
- If a confrontation seems necessary, trainers should handle it themselves instead of setting up the other trainer or a participant to do it for them.
- Trainers should recognize that any opinion expressed in the session reflects the speaker's perception of the world.
- Trainers should hold a training team debriefing after sessions--even if only to get agreement that it is going well. Meet once a day to discuss any problems before they get out of hand and to give mutual support.

TRAINER QUESTIONNAIRE

The following list of questions is designed to help trainers examine the dynamics present in the co-training situation. Trainers should use it when preparing to train a course and also to examine the dynamics occurring during each day's training.

For each session or for an entire event, trainers should respond to the following questions:

- Who has done the most (least) talking?
- What kind of struggles for leadership are occurring?
- Who seems to have the most (least) influence?
- Who avoids giving negative feedback?
- Who levels--when and about what?
- Who encourages self-discovery?
- Who models the skills being trained?
- How are ideas handled? Are they supported, dismissed, etc.?
- What kind of atmosphere has been established?
- Are feelings and opinions expressed openly?
- Who focuses on content?
- Who focuses on process?
- How is each trainer feeling about him or herself right now?
- How does each feel about the co-trainers?
- How does each feel about the co-training relationship?

CO-TRAINING AS A MEANS OF MODELING

Co-training may have particular advantages when careful consideration is given to:

- The nature of the course
- The nature of the audience to be trained.

Courses in highly charged or in specific areas may be best trained by a trainer or trainers with special knowledge of the subject matter obtained through their identification as a particular minority--i.e., ethnic, racial, sexual--or experience--i.e., recovered alcoholic, manager of a treatment program, etc.

Courses delivered to a mixed audience may be best trained by trainers who represent aspects of that mixture so that sensitivity to the audience is ensured as well as a capability to adapt training materials to that audience as necessary.

A sample for a suggested co-trainer relationship for Women in Treatment I follows to illustrate both of these points.

SAMPLE OF A SUGGESTED CO-TRAINING RELATIONSHIP FROM THE WOMEN IN TREATMENT I COURSE

TRAINER CHARACTERISTICS

The Women In Treatment course focuses on attitudes, values, knowledge, and skill development. Since the participants are both women and men, it is important that the course be conducted by a female and a male trainer. If possible, the third or auxiliary trainer should be a woman. It is essential that the trainers have experience as group leaders in both group dynamics and task-oriented training.

The trainers should:

- Be familiar with the women's movement--casual factors, history, and current concerns;
- Be sensitive to women's issues and concerns;
- Be sensitive to male concerns about the changing role of women;
- Have at least 2 years experience in group dynamics and task-oriented training;
- Have knowledge of drug abuse problems and drug treatment modalities; and
- Have experience in training drug treatment staff--especially counselors and supervisors.

STAFFING REQUIREMENTS

Three trainers are needed to conduct this course. There should be a trainer/trainee ratio of approximately one trainer for each seven trainees; optimum training group size is 21 participants. Three consultants are needed to lead the consultation groups in Modules IV and V. It is recommended that these consultants be women who have experience in providing both drug treatment and staff development. Consultant characteristics are discussed in greater detail later. Men can be used as either auxiliary staff or consultants; however, they should not outnumber the women on staff or in consultant positions.

THE FEMALE LEAD TRAINER

This course is about women. Therefore, it makes sense for the lead trainer to be a woman. As lead trainer, she delivers many of the lectures, supervises the exercises, and leads small groups. She orchestrates, coordinates, guides, and directs the training. Her judgment of when to speed up, slow down, take a different task, or allow a discussion to continue, greatly influences the success of the course. Because some of the activities and information in this course may make some of the participants uncomfortable, sad, angry, or personally threatened, it is vital that she be sensitive and knowledgeable of group dynamics and individual reactions.

The female lead trainer provides trainees with a role model of a women in authority. Through her interactions with the male co-trainer and male participants, she demonstrates an appreciation and acceptance of the opposite sex and an ability to work with them to achieve the course goals. Because of her position, the female lead trainer gives sanction to and stimulates discussion on issues that women in the group might otherwise be reluctant to raise.

THE MALE CO-TRAINER

Similiarly, the male co-trainer serves as a role model for men in the group. Through his interaction with the female lead trainer and female members of the training group, he demonstrates an appreciation and acceptance of women, and an ability to work with them to achieve the course goals. Because of his position, he is able to express feelings about being a man (and being in the training group) that male trainees might not initially feel comfortable discussing. If he has never before worked with a female lead trainer, a candid discussion of his feelings may be most helpful when preparing to deliver this course and may be an appropriate subject to discuss in the training group.

The male co-trainer is responsible for delivering some of the lectures, conducting many of the exercises, and leading small groups. His perceptivity and sensitivity to group dynamics and individual reactions is invaluable in helping the group stay on course. He gives feedback to the lead trainer, as she does to him, about the process occurring in the training group, and gives the lead trainer suggestions about changes in the pace or delivery of training.

THE AUXILIARY TRAINER

The auxiliary trainer serves as the trainers' trainer. She observes and records the content and process occurring in each module; she conducts the trainer debriefings and gives feedback to the lead and co-trainers about group dynamics in and individual reactions to the course and the training team members. Based on her observations, she makes recommendations about design modifications. To fulfill this role, the auxiliary trainer must have excellent process observation skills and be an experienced trianer. She must also have the ability to distinguish between her personal feelings catalysed by the course, and those of the trainees or other trainers. Her role begins during the preparation for course delivery. During this period, she participates in all of the team-building activities and gives feedback to the trainers about their behavior during the preparation. This lays the groundwork for her role during course delivery. The auxiliary trainer participates in the training group (when the design requires three small groups), and she may intervene in the training if it is necessary to clarify, summarize, or raise an important point.

The auxiliary trainer is responsible for:

- Managing the logistics and keeping track of materials and equipment;
- Administering the pre/posttest; and
- Attending to the administrative details of course delivery.

MODULE IV

MODULE IV: CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS IN TRAINING **TIME:** 5 HOURS 45 MINUTES

GOALS

- To increase trainees' awareness of cultural differences and their implications for training.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

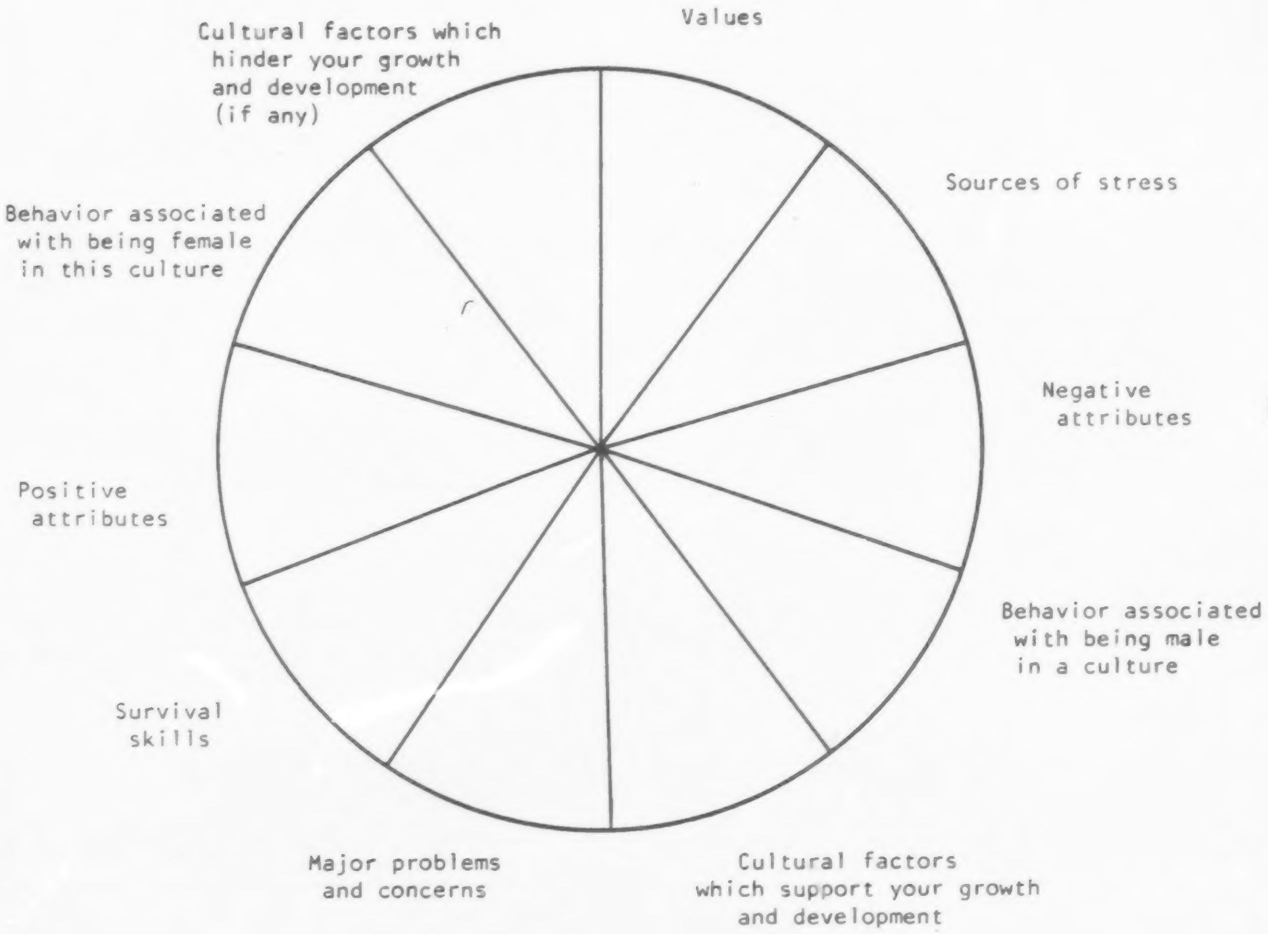
- Identify at least five of the following variables about their own or a familiar nondominant cultural group:
  - Values
  - Major problems/concerns
  - Positive and negative attributes
  - Stressful elements and culturally appropriate coping strategies
  - Sex role-linked behaviors
- Identify at least two aspects of the communication process and small group dynamics that may reflect cultural differences
- Identify at least two areas that may require adaptation according to the needs or characteristics of a specific cultural group in a sample training design.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET IV-1: CIRCLE OF CULTURE

____
Cultural Identity


Values
Sources of stress
Negative attributes
Behavior associated with being male in a culture
Cultural factors which support your growth and development
Major problems and concerns
Survival skills
Positive attributes
Behavior associated with being female in this culture
Cultural factors which hinder your growth and development (if any)

MAJOR DIFFERENCES FROM DOMINANT CULTURE:

____

____

____

WORKSHEET IV-2
ADAPTING A TRAINING DESIGN

You are to deliver a 5-day course called "Family Counseling for Substance Abusers," which is to be adapted for your designated cultural group. The course outline is as follows:

Pretest

Module	I.	Introduction and Overview
	II.	Family Systems Theory
	III.	Life Cycles
	IV.	Role of Family Therapist
	V.A.	Roles, Rules, and Self-Worth
	V.B.	Family Communication Patterns
	VI.	Characteristics of Families with Substance Abuse Problems
	VII.	Adolescents and Substance Abuse
	VIII.	Counseling the Spouse of the Abuser
	IX.	Significant Others
	X.	Marital Counseling and Family Sexuality
	XI.	Problem-Solving Skills
	XII.	Assessment Interviewing and Treatment Planning
	XIII.	Families with Special Concerns

Evaluation and Posttest

Read the following excerpt from Module V-B, How Familes Operate, which was taken from "Conjoint Family Counseling from Substance Abuse Counselors" (developed by the Family Counseling Center, Columbia, Missouri).

After reading the excerpt, break into small groups to discuss ways to adapt the material to a designated cultural group. Be sure to include a rationale for the adaptation(s) based on the issues, concerns, or characteristics you identify with that cultural group.

Worksheet IV-2, Continued

MODULE V-B: Trainer Manual*
HOW FAMILIES OPERATE:
FAMILY COMMUNICATION PATTERNS

The Trainer's Goal for This Module Is:

To acquaint the participants with the dysfunctional patterns of communication existing in families.

The Trainer's Objectives for This Module Are:

1. Define the importance of rules in a family.
2. Describe how a person's self develops concurrently with his/her relationships with others.
3. Explain and demonstrate the roles family members play as a result of low self-esteem.

Materials Needed for This Module Are:

- Lecture
- Newsprint with good communication rules
- Feedback rules
- Family handout

Suggested Time Schedule:

Activity 1:	10:30-11:00	Lecturette--Large Group
Activity II:	11:00-11:15	Practicing I's and Eyes in Dyads
Activity III:	11:15-12:00	Communication Triads--Small Group
Activity IV:	12:00-12:15	Body Talk

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ACTIVITY I

Lecturette

What makes a family nurturing or healthy as opposed to debilitating or troubled? One of the basic ingredients in a healthy family system is good communication. The individuals within the system feel comfortable in stating their needs, wants, desires, ideas, and feelings within the family structure. Some important rules operating within the family system governing communication include "It's O.K. to disagree." "It's O.K. to give feedback, both positive and negative." Listening and hearing is encouraged and individuals are treated with respect even when their behavior is not accepted. The communication of criticism and anger are allowable as long as they are directed at specific behavior and not at personhood. Trust and openness are high. This allows people to be themselves and at the same time be close to other family members.

All family units have some kind of communication: The verbals and non-verbals pass like electricity among the people within the family. The troubled family slowly develops its own unique patterns of communication. Communication patterns tend to be vague, closed, and indirect. Responses to other family members often contain elements of blame, fear, and avoidance, and are lacking in trust, openness, and confidence.

The messages are implied, judgements are pronounced, and there is poor emotional management, with individuals handling emotions by minimizing or denying their feelings or exploding inappropriately. There is a general lack of ideas, and creative thinking is discouraged because it is assumed that changes could not be tolerated. Non-verbals do not always match with verbals and result in double messages which at best are confusing and unclear.

The troubled family runs as smoothly as a ticking time bomb ready to explode with the next crisis.

Clearing communication patterns must be dealt with early in therapy. The therapist can begin to teach family members simple communication rules, such as:

1. Use the "I" statement when stating what you think, how your feel, or what you want. This encourages people to take responsibility for themselves within the family structure and also decreases the general blaming statements.

2. Use eye contact when talking to other family members.

3. Don't yell from another room: Face the person to whom you are talking. Many times, Dad in the living room yells about finances to Mom in the kitchen.

4. Practice listening. See if you can be another person's mirror and reflect back what you heard him say without editorializing.

5. Ask clarifying questions when you don't understand another person's point of view. This includes newspaper questions such as "What do you mean..." "Where..." "When..." or "How..." not "Whys." Why tends to make them react defensively.

6. Try to understand how the other person is feeling. Pay attention to voice intonation and non-verbals.

7. Learn to give feedback. Make it specific and aimed at behavior the person can do something about. Feedback can be given on how you are affected by the person's behavior and should be checked to insure clear communication.

8. Learn to compliment other family members sincerely.

All of these rules contribute to healthy communication patterns within the family system and can be conveyed by therapist teaching, modeling, and giving examples, and then the family members role playing and practicing within the counseling session, with a commitment to continue the practice at home.

An important area to take a look at is how the family is communicating emotionally. How do they communicate their feelings to each other? What feelings do they allow themselves and other family members to have? Do the family rules allow people to express their feelings? (Trainer gives specific example.) How do the role expectations affect the expression of feelings within the family? (Trainer gives example.) As therapy progresses, the therapist can start labeling the self-defeating rules which inhibit communication patterns as myths and explore alternative rules within the family.

ACTIVITY II

"I's and Eyes"

Request the groups to divide into dyads. Have them sit facing their partner maintaining eye contact. Have the trainees talk with one another beginning each sentence with "I think," "I feel," or "I want." Allow about 3-5 minutes for this.

Next allow about 3-5 minutes for them to share with their partner how it feels to talk starting each sentence with "I."

ACTIVITY III

Communication Triads

Before beginning this exercise, take 5 minutes to review the following aspects of communication with the trainees....

LISTENING RESPONSES

Blocking Responses
- Unrelated, off the wall
- Tangential

Furthering Responses
- Newspaper questions
  (where, what, when, how)

SOME COMMON BLOCKS TO LISTENING

- Jumping to conclusions
- Making assumptions
- Unspoken bargains
- Preparing your own reply
- Worried about what to say
- Association with past
- Defense mechanisms

- Emphatic (feeling responses)
- Mirroring--focusing on speaker and reflecting what you hear him/her say.

RULES FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. Deliberately using the word "I."
2. Expressing thoughts, feelings, ideas, directly and honestly.
3. Eye contact.
4. Firm, strong voice.
5. Fluency of speech.
6. Appropriate facial expression.
7. Relaxed body expression.
8. Appropriate distance from other person.

- Boring topic
- Physical condition.

RULES FOR EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

Purposes

- To check out assumptions
- To share observations
- To share how I am affected by you.

Good Feedback Is

- Descriptive, not evaluative
- Specific, not general
- Sensitive to both receiver and giver
- Directed toward behavior receiver can do something about
- Solicited, not imposed
- Well-timed
- Checked to insure clear communication.

Now request that your trainees find two new partners and form triads. One person is to act in the role of speaker, another person is to be in the role of some significant other in the speaker's life (such as friend, spouse, teacher). The speaker is to share with this significant other something that has been bothering him or her that he or she has not shared previously. The third person is to act as an observer to give feedback to both speaker and listener.

Allow approximately 5 minutes for the speaker to share what has been bothering him or her. Encourage the speaker to use positive speaking techniques and the listener to utilize furthering responses. After the speaker has finished, have the observer give feedback to each of the partners. Then have them switch roles until each person has had an opportunity to play each role.

ACTIVITY IV

Body Talk

...have the participants focus on body languages for a couple of minutes. Request all trainees to silently mill around the room simply looking at one another. Ask them to stop and silently choose someone in their immediate vicinity as a partner. Instruct them to communicate one message to that other person by using only body language....

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SELECTED READING IV-1

LANGUAGE, CULTURE, AND ETHNICITY IN DEVELOPING SELF-CONCEPT

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LANGUAGE, CULTURE, AND ETHNICITY IN DEVELOPING SELF-CONCEPT

by
Marta Sotomayor

Efforts to provide human services to certain minority groups continue to be criticized on the basis of their applicability to linguistically and culturally different ethnic groups. Criticisms point out that most helping approaches do not include language and culture as tools in the understanding of the myriad of behaviors of bilingual individuals, nor is there recognition of their role in a therapeutic meaningful experience.

The Supreme Court decision, stemming from the Lau v. Nichols case, has highlighted the importance of language in learning and other cognitive processes, as well as the responsibility of the educational institution to provide instruction in the mother tongue of the student.[1] Several states have now moved to introduce bilingual education legislature as one more step in a series of strategies that can lead to the recognition of the role that language plays in the total experience of the individual and group. These events have carried over to the human service delivery fields with growing expectations for the development and utilization of helping frameworks that will place language in an intrinsic position in the helping process.

For some groups, three components, language, culture, and ethnicity play a most important role in the formation of the self-concept, and in the development of cognitive and coping skills. The three concepts are analytically different, yet they are interrelated. While culture and ethnicity continue to be the subject of discussion and ongoing review, language has been less understood, particularly in terms of identifying ways of integrating this most complex phenomenon into social work practice approaches.

This article traces some philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of language, culture, and ethnicity in an effort to highlight the role these three elements play in human behavior. The role of language and culture in mental processes, which determine the perception and definition of reality, is particularly emphasized. The intrapsychic and intrapersonal aspects of language presented here were selected on the basis of their applicability to the understanding of the colonized experience, specifically in terms of the majority-minority of color groups relationship in this country.

It has become customary to define the colonized experience in terms of the concrete conditions faced by these groups such as poor housing, poor nutrition and health, high unemployment rates, and school drop-out rates; economic and political forces

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[1] The Bilingual Education Act (Public Law 93-380), Title VII, ESEA, was based on the Lau v. Nichols case. The Lau Remedies Memorandum, also based on the same court decision, prepared by bilingual and bicultural teachers and filed with the Office of Civil Rights, provided the basis for the development of the Lau Assistance Centers in several cities of the Southwest.

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external to the colonized group are seen as the causes for such conditions. A more popular approach, although not more accurate, utilized to describe the colonized experience, ascribes the problems encountered by the colonized to the innate, or internal, characteristics of the group in question, such as asserting that the maintenance of different cultural and linguistic factors create the major barriers to entry into the mainstream of American life. Rather than dichotomize by following the above mentioned schema, this article assumes that the external and internal factors play a significant part in the development and selection of coping patterns of colonized groups.[2]

THE SELF-CONCEPT

The self-concept consists of sets of images organized and internalized according to group norms, communicated and reinforced over time through a variety of daily experiences and symbolic interactions. The individual discovers who he is as the self-image becomes affected by relationships, expectations, failures, and by successes in experiences with others. It is generally agreed upon that a positive self-perception is crucial to functioning adequately and comfortably in one's surroundings. Self-worth and self-identity in the context of the environment become inseparable. Ortega y Gasset, the Spanish writer and scholar, succinctly describes the relationship between the self and the transactional field when he states, "Soy yo y mis circumstancias" (I am I and my circumstances.)[3]

Psychologically, the self-concept is the most vulnerable component in the transactions between minorities of color and majority populations. Negative stereotypes, for example, aim at the perpetuation of the depreciation and undermining of the self-worth. The self-concept can suffer irreparable damage if the socialization process prevents significant and familiar symbols to be present and reinforced at various levels of experience. The sense of belonging, crucial in the development of the self-concept, becomes blurred if one's language, cultural patterns, and ethnic experiences are not reflected and supported, but rather given a negative connotation in the environment.

LANGUAGE

Old philosophical arguments as to the function and role of language in the perception of reality are revived as one examines the manner in which a system of language shapes a system of thinking and behavior.

In the late eighteenth century the thesis was postulated that the system of the language spoken by a given group of people shapes the *weltanschauung* (world view) of the members of that "nation."[4] Language, the intermediary of ideas, was seen as an instrument, or vehicle, which allows people not only to think in that language, but also to think through the vehicle of language itself; language was seen as a creative force, molding one's thoughts and inevitably influencing behavior. By describing language as an accumulation of the knowledge based on experiences and living conditions of a given group, the relationship between language and culture was made more clear. The role of language in the transmission of such knowledge from generation to generation points to the centrality of language in cultural transmission as well. It is through the process of upbringing, or socialization, that ideas are known through the intermediary of words.

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[2] See Robert Blauner, Internal Colonialism and Ghetto Revolt, *Social Problems*, 16:393-402 (Spring 1960). Blauner expands the notion of colonialism to internal colonialism whereby the following elements appear: (1) forced, involuntary entry, (2) the "Colonizing power carries out a policy which constraints, transforms, or destroys indigenous values, orientations, and ways of life," (3) "an experience of being managed and manipulated by outsiders," and (4) racism.

[3] Ortega y Gasset, *Esquema dela Crisis*. (Madrid: Revista de Occidente, 1942), p. 8.

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, language was seen as a factor which transforms reality, or the world.[5] Language was seen as a transforming and creative force--a force that brings unity to experience through its function as an intermediary between the objective world and man. The world view, also seen as the intermediary world of a language, was perceived as inherent in language itself. It is through this unique and complex relationship that language was seen to play a decisive role in shaping the attitudes of individuals and groups and, by extension, their personalities and behaviors.

The theme of "inner form" of language which shapes our perception of the world and our behavior, is carried through in the field-theory of linguistics as it deals with the role of language in cognition. This theoretical position perceives words as creating a system of intellectual symbols through a selecting, structuring, and ordering process. The establishment of a sense of identity is seen to be closely linked to linguistic symbolic structures, and thus by extension, closely interrelated to the perception of reality. This point was elaborated by Jost Trier and interpreted to mean that language, through its creation of symbols, creates reality.[6]

The importance of these philosophical positions is that they focus on the crucial role that language plays in the process of personality development and functioning, as well as pointing out the relationship between culture, ethnicity, and language. While key functions of language are communication and transmission of culture, language plays an even more important role in shaping cognition--"by transforming the chaos which we call the world, into an ordered (author's italics) product. Language becomes the maker of the only world that is accessible to us--and this is the world constructed by language."[7] Leo Weisberger addresses himself to this point, "linguistic differences are differences in classification of the objects encountered in the world around us,

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[4] Rudolf Haym, Herder, vols. 1 and 2 (Berlin: Aufbau-Verlag, 1954).

[5] Rudolf Haym, Wilhelm Von Humboldt: Lebensbild und Charakteristik (Berlin: Aufbau-Verlag, 1954. Originally published by R. Gaertner, Berlin, 1856).

[6] Jost Trier, Der deutsche Wortschatz in Sinnbezirk des Verstandes: die Geschichte eines Sprachlichen Feldes (Heidelberg: Carl Winter, 1931).

[7] Adam Schaff, Language and Cognition (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 21.

which in the last analysis affects our vision of that world."[8] In many intricate ways, language constantly arranges and sorts out data based on ordinary everyday analysis of phenomena.[9]

The Whorf-Sapir hypothesis expands the theme of the role of language in the formulation and perception of the world view.[10] This position is concerned with the ways in which people's thoughts, perceptions, and behaviors are patterned by largely unconscious linguistic forms and cultural sets.

Language assumes a series of unique functions, among which, providing the medium of expression for a particular society and becoming a reproducing instrument for ideas are the most readily understood, and its function in defining reality, the most complex one. The "real world" is reflected and recorded in linguistic symbols, or inventories of experiences, that eventually form the language habits of a group. The parameters, grammars, and repertoire vocabularies of such linguistic systems assume a crucial role in the definition of reality, for they not only determine what we observe, but also analyze, evaluate, and synthesize external experiences and by doing so, language becomes a guide to social reality. It is quite possible for two linguistic groups to arrive at two different perceptions and a different organization of reality as the implicit expectations of our own language, with its self-contained system of meanings, are projected into the field of experience as a conceptual system that foresees all possible experience. Thus, "Meanings are not so much discovered in experience as imposed upon it, because the tyrannical hold that linguistic form has upon our orientation of the world."[11] Furthermore, "the phenomena of a language are to its own speakers largely of a background character and so are outside the critical consciousness and control of the speaker."[12]

The Whorf-Sapir hypothesis also supports the culture-forming role of language, in that it postulates that the language with which a given community speaks, thinks, and organizes a set of experiences, shapes the immediate world and influences the way a community grasps reality.[13] Language, socially conditioned, is a symbolic system of experiences in the actual context of behavior, therefore never divorced from action.

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[8] Leo Weisgerber, Die Bedeutungslehre-ein Irrweg der Sprachwisenschaft? Germanish-Romanische Montsschrift, 15:161-183, (1927).

[9] Benjamin Lee Whorf, The Relation of Habitual Thought and Behavior to Language, in Language, Culture, and Society, ed. Ben Blount (Cambridge, Mass.: Winthrop Publishers, 1974), p. 67.

[10] Harry Hoijer, The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, in Language, Culture, and Society, ed. Blount, pp.120-31.

[11] Edward Sapir, Conceptual Categories in Primitive Languages, Science 74 (1930), p. 578.

[12] Benjamin L. Whorf, Collected Papers on Meta-linguistics (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of State, Foreign Service Institute, 1952), p. 4.

[13] Edward Sapir, Culture, Language and Personality (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1964), p. 141.

Examination of the vocabularies of people of various cultures shows that words exist for everything that is essential in the culture and that elaborate distinctions are found that reflect the importance of objects, behavior, and activities in the lives of people. The development of electrical power, of the automobile, of modern science, and of new economic and social organizations has enriched the vocabulary of practically every language, with terms for new experiences and objects without number. Language thus supplies the need for new cultural symbols, as well as providing depth and breadth to our experiences. In every culture, the vocabulary reflects the relationship of man to his natural environment and gives testimony to the kind of life he leads. The field of linguistic data demonstrates that language is a reflection of culture, that the content of every culture is expressed in its language, and that there are everywhere linguistic devices that enable the language to follow the demands of culture and vice versa. It is also possible that when changes in culture demand new ways of expression, language is sufficiently pliable to follow new needs. The poem, Mis Ojos Hinchados, exhibits a skillful blend of English and Spanish to form a strong binary line of poetry which creates usually evocative rhythms, caesura, and images, but as well illustrates the phenomena of cultural borrowing.[14] Generally then, while social behavior can be conditioned by dynamic cultural processes, in the broadest sense of the term, linguistic behavior is seen as its action counterpart.

SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

The functions of language in the process of socialization are comprehensive. These processes, among others, include language as a communication vehicle between the members of the group, language usage in the establishment of a relationship and solidarity, language as a declaration of the place and psychological distance held by its various members, and language use in the coordination of the activities of the group. Vriel Weinreich suggests that "language shifts," typical of the bilingual individual, can be understood in "terms of the functions of the language in contact situations as well as in the domain of the language in use since a mother tongue (speaker) may switch to a new language in certain circumstances and functions, but not in others."[15]

The "domains of a language" can be described as the sphere in which one language, such as a dialect, style, variant, and so forth, is habitually, or repeatedly, employed rather than, or in addition to, another. The family, the neighborhood, the church, and the occupation are examples of domains. Studies dealing with culture contact and patterns on language usage, point out that the functions performed by one language are shared by two, or more, if the person is bilingual (or trilingual as the case may be), with convenience or necessity determining the division of the usage of one language over another. It is possible that each one of the bilingual's languages may be dominant, or not dominant, in terms of several criteria to include proficiency, mode of use, order and age of learning the language, usefulness in communication, emotional involvement, function in social advance, literary value, contact with the majority non-Spanish-speaking group, or distance from the reference group and mother tongue.

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[14] Alberto Urista, Floricanto en Aztlan (Los Angeles: Chicano Culture Center, 1971), p. 40.

[15] Uriel Winreich, Languages in Contact (The Hague: Mouton, 1953), p. 107.

John J. Gumperz proposes the idea of the "linguistic community"--a social group held together by the frequency of social interaction patterns.[16] A social group of this kind can be identified in part by its linguistic attributes, but of equal importance is the frequency of interaction of its members within the group and with outside groups--activities that in themselves are determined by their linguistic attributes.

Joshua Fishman stresses the need for considerable insight into the sociocultural dynamics of a particular bilingual, or multilingual, setting, at particular periods in their history in order to make an appropriate designation and definition of domains of language behavior.[17] The group relating functions of language will generally reflect the total social environment, to include both the social structure of a society, and the relation of the individual to that structure.

The social functions of a language can be defined according to the ways in which the language spoken by a group of people are related to that group's social position and organization. Language thus can become a source of data for that culture as well as for its social organization and behavior.[18]

The functions of language in preserving status relationships, and in the process of selecting, replacing, or modifying statuses is noted.[19] Statuses are social positions with rights and duties, often expressed linguistically as deference, cordiality, reverence, affection, sexual distance, emotional independence, dominance, oppression, and so forth. For the bilingual individual, the linguistic behavior can be determined by the domains of specific societal-institutional levels and their status in those systems. These various levels encompass interpersonal and intergroup relationships characterized by intimacy or distance, formality or informality, solidarity or nonsolidarity, and status or power.

It is not unusual for bilingual individuals to attempt to manipulate their language skills through code switching, in order to conform to the social norms of a particular culture, or their own aspirations. For example, the social mobility of a linguistic group with a low status can increase if the skills in using the language of the higher status group are improved. The interrelationship between the domains of language behavior, defined at a societal-institutional level, can determine the language choice. The issue of identity confusion has been raised by critics of bilingual programs advocated by groups of lower status. However, Ward H. Goodenough makes a clear distinction between composite identities assumed by a person on the one hand, and concomitant statuses which enter into and evantually define the self-concept. Depending on the "occasion," a given individual selects particular identities in which to present himself or herself to the world.[20]

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[16] John J. Gumperz, Language in Social Group (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1971), pp. 14-36.

[17] Joshua A. Fishman, Language in Social Cultural Change (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1972), p. 248.

[18] George C. Barker, Social Functions of Language in a Mexican American Community (Tucson, Ariz.: The University of Arizona Press, 1972), p. 2.

[19] James H.J. Bossard, American Sociological Review, American Sociological Society, 10:699-709 (November 1945).

Language often follows the selected cultural or ethnic identity with code switching becoming one additional component of the coping repertoire. It is significant to note that the bilingual individual can, and often does, switch from one language to another, either as a conscious or an unconscious effort. In the process of changing from one language to another, one cannot overlook the process that allows for the selection of responses, or behaviors, that appear appropriate, functional, or comfortable at a particular time and space.

The linguistic behavior patterns of bilingual individuals and groups can also be understood in relation to social participation patterns, determined by social straitification as a result of political forces. For example, for the Chicano population in this country, social participation is not a matter of available choices, but rather whether the Chicano is allowed to participate due to his or her low ranking social position. Language in this situation is utilized as a means of social control.

"Language was ever the fellow of empire and accompanied it everywhere so that together they waxed strong and flourished and together they later fell."[21] The role of language imposition, which followed conquest was to exclude from access to power those who had not had sufficient contact with the conquerors. Additionally, language discrimination was oftentimes related to religious conflict, because the religion of an individual could often be identified by the language he spoke.

Certain governmental actions with respect to language are attributed to the function of control of language. For example, it was significant that the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo guaranteed the Mexican residents of the Southwest the preservation of their mother tongue, but it was equally significant that this guarantee was quickly removed from the books and the English language was established as an official designation. This official designation was, and continues to be, applied through the courts, the legislature, the school system, and the various economic groups. The end result is exclusion of certain linguistic groups, that is Spanish-speaking, from the normal processes of a free society.

For the bilinguals of color, such as Chicanos, language has played a most significant social and survival function, for example, language has had a definite role in providing the group feeling of solidarity to deal with the oppressive majority culture. It is a common language that often coordinates the activities of the in-group, by making individuals conscious of the relationships between members and outsiders, thus promoting a sense of belonging. Language, in exercising one of its primary functions, has enabled this group to retain its distinctive characteristics over many generations, despite the rejection and hostility experienced from the majority community, permitting a sense of symbolic continuity and thus survival.[22]

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[20] Ward H. Goodenough, Rethinking Status and Roles, in The Relevance of Models for Social Anthropology (London: Tavistock Publications, 1965, 1956), p. 7.

[21] Nebrija, an early Spanish grammarian quoted in Carmelo Delgado Cintron, Colonial Language Status Achievement; Mexico, Peru and the U.S., unpublished manuscript, 1973.

The domains of a language can be a useful conception to understand the bilingual experience. For many bilingual populations, such as Chicanos, Spanish has been the language of the family, but the forbidden language of schools. The psychological effects and the implications of language acceptance or rejection, in the high drop-out rate of Chicanos from schools are yet to be recognized by the schools and other human service delivery systems.

The ramifications of official designation of language are indeed related to the minority status of groups, in this society, and by extension to the formation of a negative or positive self-concept. The bitter fights of the bilingual Spanish-English populations against official language designation, specifically in the schools, reflect the awareness of these groups. What is at stake here is the opportunity to participate in the affairs of society, and the preservation and recognition of an adequate and positive self-concept. The consequence of this lack of opportunity is that these population groups have lost control of themselves and society. The issue of autonomy, related to the self-concept, becomes central in this type of dynamic, yet the decision to impose English reflects the popular attitudes toward the particular ethnic group and the degree of hostility evidenced toward that group's natural development.

CULTURE

While there are varying points of view regarding the form and degree of the interrelationship between language and culture, it is generally agreed that there exists an inevitable connection between the two. It becomes, therefore, crucial that the notion of culture be reviewed particularly as it is used to define the minorities of color experiences.

The definitions of culture that are more popular among human service providers are time-bound and value-laden, and reflect the majority-minority relationship which often undermines the self-worth of the ethnic minority in consideration. For example, the cultural deterministic, and by extension of culture of poverty approach, is entrenched in the position that perceives the individual and the group in a pathological position, and at best, at a disadvantaged position that value the "blaming the victim" strategy. The cultural relativist perspective assumes a monolithic, traditional

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[22] Nearly two-thirds of the Chicano population report that they spoke Spanish in their home when they were children. The majority continue to speak Spanish in the home. The percentages still using Spanish in the home is highest among older persons (55 years and over) and teenagers, particularly at the critical ages of 14-19. By and large, children and teenagers still speak Spanish with their peers and parents, although the majority were born in this country. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, Subject Reports: National Origin and Language, PC(2)-IV, p. 58.

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culture (for example the Mexican traditional culture) that often utilizes a continuum of degrees of acculturation into the majority culture,[23] the linear direction inevitably leads to assimilation and loss of culture specificity and language. The marginal man paradigm places the subject in a precarious position of marginality, belonging neither to one group nor another, resulting in a state of anomie, alienation, and confusion.[24] The narrow parameters of these various conceptualizations negate the self-realization of the ethnic group in question, but serve the purpose of the inherent demeaning processes typical of oppression, conquest, and colonization. People in a constant state of vulnerability and potential conflict with a dominant group develop appropriate coping mechanisms and behaviors for survival and do achieve a degree of cultural, linguistic, and psychological equilibrium. While there is cultural conflict and cultural shock there is also mutual cultural borrowing, cultural change, and cultural survival strategies. Another way of describing this dynamic cultural process is what Octavio Romano has called a "historical confrontation with life."[25]

As it applies to the Chicano experience, for example, culture should not be conceptualized as a synthesis of two or more cultural components, as much as it is a dynamic meshing of various cultures; it is a network of cultural threads interacting with one another in a coordinating, interlocking, and borrowing manner. The various parts of this network are in a constant state of flux, reacting in a variety of ways in an effort to achieve consistency and provide congruency to the personality. It is the space and the "breathing relationship" among the various threads of the cultural network, called upon to act at a particular time and space, that has allowed Chicano culture to exist and to survive. In line with this perspective, Fernando Penalosa has defined Chicano culture to include the "sum total of techniques a people has in coping with and adapting to its physical and social environment that have been developed as a special cultural response to its minority status."[26]

What is significant and crucial about this conceptualization of culture is that it allows the individual flexibility and a variety of options for cultural behavior; it provides autonomy to the individual and the right to act as the actor rather than the object. This "coping" perspective allows each individual space to react, but more importantly, to utilize various experiences based on several cultural exposures to meet specific sets of situations and circumstances. Culture becomes a shifting process of arranging and rearranging experiences, selecting appropriate and functional behaviors that provide congruence to the individual. While at times the organism can react in a self-detrimental manner, or in terms of deviance from group norms, most of the time behaviors reflect a resourceful and positive confrontation with life. For example, the Mexican American from El Paso, Texas, is close to the cultural perspectives of the Mexican norteno, a perspective that is reinforced by geographical proximity and cultural accessibility via a variety of vehicles and mechanisms. The Chicano from Chicago has similarities with the black and the Puerto Rican cultures of the area (due to the close spatial relationship and commonality of experiences) yet still draws upon his ancestral Indian and Spanish cultural heritage.

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[23] For illustrations of this point see Miles V. Zintz, Education Across Cultures, 2nd ed. (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co., 1960); Lyle Saunders, Cultural Differences and Medical Care: The Case of the Spanish Speaking People of the Southwest (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1954); and Nick C. Vaca, The Mexican American in the Social Science, 1912-1970, pt. 1, El Grito, 3:3-24, (Summer 1970).

[24] See primarily the works of Robert E. Parks on the marginal man theory.

[25] Octavio I. Romano V, The Anthropology and Sociology of Mexican Americans: The Distortion of Mexican American History, El Grito, 2:13-26 (Fall 1968).

[26] Fernando Penalose, Toward an Operational Definition of the Mexican American, Aztlan: Chicano Journal of the Social Sciences and the Arts, 1:6 (Spring 1970).

ETHNICITY

There is considerable confusion regarding the notions of culture and ethnicity; while there is a close relationship, both are analytically separate concepts. The terms need to be used differentially, particularly in terms of their relationship to language and minority of color group status.

Ethnicity has often been used interchangeably with the term minority; further, within this context ethnicity has been confused with socioeconomic class and status. While it is true that ethnicity, race, and class factors crisscross and contribute to the ranking of individuals and groups in social stratification processes, these systems remain analytically separate. Individuals can still belong to the same class stratum even though they may be stratified along ethnic or racial lines or when no ethnic or racial group exists.[27] For example, there are upper- and middle-class blacks, but in relation to the total society they remain lower in status than whites of the same class. These separate social stratification factors can be differentiated in a number of ways, however, one theoretical position maintains that the conflict associated with one or the other, or both, helps to clarify the distinction between the two. It is quite possible that ethnic conflict prevents focalization of class conflicts, while interclass struggle may direct hostility away from "ethnic" targets.[28] While it is important to consider socioeconomic factors and their relationship to ethnicity, the concern here is with the psychological meaning of ethnicity, culture, and language, not separate and apart from environmental and social processes, but very much as an integral part of both.

Ethnicity can be defined in terms of cultural and linguistic uniqueness that allow for membership in a particular group. There is, however, a more fundamental attribute that allows ethnicity to play a crucial role in the aspects of the identity of the self and the group. Ethnicity refers to the character, the spirit of a culture, or more succinctly, to the cultural ethos. Specifically, ethnicity is related to the underlying sentiment among individuals based on a sense of commonality of origin, beliefs, values, customs, or practices of a specific group of peoples. While it is primarily based on ancestry, there is also a sense of having been an independent group sometime in the past from which the present population is descended. What is important is the mythic meaning of the unit of descent that can provide a sense of historical continuity for the development of the self-concept and social identity. Although ethnicity is relevant to behavior it is not deterministic of behavior per se.

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[27] Robin M. Williams, Jr. American Society, 2nd ed. rev. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1960), pp. 125-26.

[28] See Robin M. Williams, Jr., The Reduction of Intergroup Tensions: A Survey of Research on Problems of Ethnic, Racial, and Religious Group Relations (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1947).

The meaning of ethnicity is therefore highly subjective as it is concerned with the sentiment felt by the members of the ethnic group. Talcott Parsons elaborates on this point as he identifies a number of major types of collectivities related in stratification and linked by sentiment, that leads to a strong sense of solidarity among its members. He categorizes "ethnic groups" along with local communities and kinship networks under the type of "diffuse solidarities." In this type of association, the elements of sentiment, solidarity, and loyalty provide the context for the sense of belonging of the individual to the particular ethnic group.[29] It is the sense of belonging, coupled with the opportunity to participate that allows for a process of self-perception and self-definition, both integral processes in the development of the self-concept.

The sense of ethnic identity and separateness through the attribution of internal and external role expectations influence the various forms of social interaction. Ethnicity determines the manner and the rationale for the formation of individual and group boundaries maintained internally although reinforced by external ascription. The history of conflict, or accommodation, among various ethnic groups determines to a great extent, the sense of inclusion of separateness felt by respective groups.

For example, the historical sense of separateness and isolation from the majority ethnic community, experienced by Chicanos, has precipitated and perpetuated constant struggle and conflict. The permeability of group boundaries, typical of cultural pluralism that allows for mutual cultural borrowing, cultural interpenetration, accommodation, and social mobility is lost in this type of relationship, but in turn, further solidifies respective group boundaries thus increasing and perpetuating the sense of separateness and isolation.

On the other hand, for Chicanos, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic identification and affirmation have acted to ease internal stress felt as a result of outside political, economic, and social degradation. The rebirth of ethnic pride, with emphasis on Indiginismo (Indian ancestry) that has evoked old images and cultural symbols is an example of strategies used to allow renewed pride, and a sense of self-acceptance, so crucial to the sense of self-worth.

For a bilingual minority of color groups such as Chicanos, a separate language has constituted the most important single characteristic of a separate ethnic identity. Language has gained importance more as a symbol that provides cohesion and unity to the group rather than to its actual use or proficiency of all members of the group. A subjective symbolic use of different aspects of various cultural roots have added to the differentiation from other ethnic groups but as well as provided a sense of belonging. The participation in nationalistic movements such as the Chicano and black movements, popular since the 1960s, is an attempt to link with the past in order to feel a sense of continuity of belonging so essential in the process of reordering statuses.

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[29] Talcott Parsons, A Revised Analytical Approach to the Theory of Social Stratification, in Class, Status and Power: A Reader in Social Stratification, eds. Reinhard Bendix and Seymour Martin Lipset (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1953), p. 115.

While culture deals with symbolic generalities and universals, ethnicity deals with the individual's mode and depth of identification as well as providing a sense of belonging to a reference group. In American society the institutionalization of ethnics of color, separateness (expressed in many concrete realities such as poor housing, lack of social mobility, and lack of access to necessary resources) has become the main vehicle for social stratification practices that create tension and conflict, typical of a system of racism.

In any interpersonal contact, but more so in any therapeutic relationship, it is most important to understand and acknowledge the intrapsychic meanings of ethnic sense of belonging and identification, the meaning and utilization of cultural symbols and the understanding of the various functions of language for the individual and the group. The consideration of these three components become crucial in the amelioration of the effects of racism on the individual and group but also in the process of dealing with social stratification whereby the three components of culture, language, and ethnicity are utilized to attack the self-worth of individuals and groups.

SELECTED READING IV-2

BLACK CULTURE ON BLACK TERMS: A REJECTION OF THE SOCIAL PATHOLOGY MODEL

by
Joan and Stephen Baratz

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Black culture on black terms: a rejection of the social pathology model

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This article delineates the fundamental "white" assumptions and biases that have up until now afflicted social science's and society's view of black culture, to the ultimate distress and detriment of black people. As Albert Murray has indicated, a "fakelore of black pathology" easily becomes translated to a "folklore of white supremacy." Within such a translation process *different* behavior (black) becomes *deviant* behavior (black), and, as everyone knows, "deviant" behavior is *pathological*, worse than *inferior: illegitimate!* As such, "deviant" behavior needs to be "normalized" ("white is right") and its "causes" eradicated. Just from the seeds of such characterizations and definitions did the "assimilationist" social and educational policy toward blacks and other ethnic minorities develop. In pointing up how social science research and practice contributed to and sustained these fundamentally racist notions, the Baratz's introductory article formally acknowledges the past, *in order that we may repudiate it*, and present to the public through the articles that follow a view of black culture untainted by notions of white supremacy.

This paper, originally titled "The Social Pathology Model: Historical Bases for Psychology's Denial of the Existence of Negro Culture," was delivered at a meeting of the APA in 1969 in Washington, D.C.

Introduction

This paper is one of a series by the authors seeking to portray the ethnocentrism of the social sciences in studies dealing with the Afro-American. It is a modest attempt to reorient the current demand for relevance in our profession back to the assumptive bases of social science, to the work we do, and to the social policy that is suggested by that work.

We will not suggest here that our prime responsibility as social scientists is to direct social action, but that social science's pressing task is to critically reexamine and reevaluate our scholarly work. We leave the responsibility of social action to individuals. We will concentrate the present discussion on the need for an extensive reevaluation of how social science has and has not dealt with black behavior and culture. The goal is to produce a revolution of ideas, rather than to attempt a revolution of direct action which fails because it is based on old and tired ideas. We believe that a revolution of ideas is a more potent force for the production of social change by social scientists than any other mode of intervention currently available to us. It is an infinitesimal beginning of the much-discussed, but little-thought-through, New Social Science.

We choose to concentrate on the bases for denial of black culture, for we feel that ignorance of this culture has produced a much more distorted and inaccurate view of the Afro-American than most of us would have previously supposed. We believe that the absence of a meaningful conception of black culture has forced the interpretation of almost all psychology's data on the Afro-American into two seemingly dichotomous categories: either that of biological incapacity (genetic inferiority) or social deviance and pathology (environmental deprivation).

We have offered elsewhere[1] a third category based upon the culture of the Afro-American in the United States (cultural difference), and we seek in the present paper to explore the reasons why psychology has never given credence to this concept as a device for hypothesis development and research design.

Briefly stated, the cultural-difference theory asserts that the statistical differences noted by psychologists in intelligence testing, in family and social organization, and in attitude studies of the black community are not the result of pathology, faulty learning, or genetic inferiority. These differences are surface manifestations of the viable, structured culture of the Afro-American—a culture which is a synthesis of African culture in contact with American-European culture under slavery. Such a model does not postulate that the existence of a distinct culture precludes the addition of other cultures. Biculturalism is indeed possible, as is bilingualism. However, it *does* insist that acquisition of new cultural patterns cannot occur without recognition and respect for existing cultural patterns.

Social science and black culture

Although the psychologist has long recognized that behavior is essentially the result of biological, sociological, and cultural factors, there is little mention of black culture as an explanation of black behavior except when "culture" is used in a distorted and negative sense. Thus the culture of poverty becomes the focus, rather than black ethnicity. Despite the fact that black behavior has its roots in an African, non-European tradition, social scientists have persisted in viewing Afro-Americans as black Europeans. Why is it that social scientists have failed to recognize a distinct black culture? This failure derives predominantly from four sources:

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[1] S. Baratz and J. C. Baratz, "Urban Education: A Cultural Solution," *The Bulletin of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies*, Fall, 1968, pp. 1–4.

1. the basic ethnocentrism of social science;
2. the socio-political myths surrounding our conception of assimilation;
3. ignorance concerning the fundamental notion of culture; and
4. embarrassment of the black middle-class and while liberals about dealing with culturally rooted behavioral differences.

The basic ethnocentrism of social science

Since the fundamental social science model is normative, it sets up a criterion of behavior against which individuals and groups are measured. The ethnocentrism stems from the fact that behavioral scientists often attempt to assess behavior using a criterion assumed to be universal to our society, when in fact that criterion is merely one cultural manifestation of the universal human behavior.

The social science literature concerning the language behavior of blacks is a case in point. Social scientists are correct in assuming that language is a universal human characteristic. Linguists have yet to find a human society—no matter how nontechnological, no matter how poor and impoverished—whose inhabitants did not use a highly structured, well-formed grammatical system for communication. It is taken as axiomatic by linguists that all humans develop language (except in those rare individual cases where severe physical and/or psychological traumas occur). Linguists have also learned that, within a large, complex society where individuals from different social classes and different ethnicities live in close proximity, they often speak many varieties (dialects) of the same language. One of these dialects may be considered socially more prestigious than the others; thus it may be used as the standard for the nation. Although one dialect may be chosen as the standard language, it is important to realize that this is an arbitrary (or, at most, social) decision which has nothing to do with that particular dialect's linguistic merits. That is to say, the dialect chosen as standard is no more highly structured, well-formed, or grammatical than any of the other dialects. The evolution of a particular dialect as the standard is due to sociopolitical considerations rather than to intrinsic linguistic superiority. Some social scientists, however, have failed to consider the existence of these language variations and have thus mistakenly equated a single surface manifestation of the universal behavior (that is, the development of the standard dialect) with the universal itself (that is, the development of language). Social scientists' refusal to grant legitimacy to black dialect is a clear-cut example of the discipline's ethnocentrism. At present, we find an entire body of psychological literature, for example, which alleges to assess the language development of black children but nevertheless uses as a criterion for language development the acquisition of standard English—a dialect of the English language that the majority of the black children in this country are *not* developing as their native dialect.[2] Since these psychologists use standard English as the criterion, they wrongly view the child's linguistic system as underdeveloped and filled with errors. He becomes, in the psychological research, verbally defective and conceptually impaired. Such research fails to recognize that the child has a system which is fully developed and highly structured, but different grammatically from that of the standard English criterion.[3]

The language system is but one instance of social scientists' ethnocentrism in dealing with black behavior. One can find and document similar instances in the social science literature dealing with family patterns, interaction styles, belief systems, and test construction.

From social science's ethnocentric position, and without an adequate conception of black culture, the profession has tended to view behavioral differences such as nonstandard black English not as signs of a different cultural system but as defects and deviances from our falsely hypothesized pan-cultural norm. A culture-of-poverty model is not appropriate here because differences observed in such a model are always interpreted *not* as legitimate manifestations of a viable culture, but as an unfortunate pathological reaction to being poor. The culture-of-poverty concept as an insufficient interpretation for linguistic data has been adequately dealt with by Stewart.[4]

In his criticism of the culture-of-poverty model Stewart illustrates that this model cannot deal with the linguistic fact that structurally different linguistic systems are found among different ethnic groups which are supposedly exposed to the same poverty culture.

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[2] C. Deutsch, "Auditory Discrimination and Learning: Social Factors," *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly* 10 (1964): 277–96; V. John, "The Intellectual Development of Slum Children," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 33 (1963): 813–22; C. Stern, "Systematic Instruction of Economically Disadvantaged Children in Pre-reading Skills," U.C.L.A. Research Projects in Early Childhood Learning, unpublished paper; C. Hurst, Jr., *Psychological Correlates in Dialectolalia*, Cooperative Research Project #2610, Communication Sciences Research Center, Howard University, 1965.

[3] J. C. Baratz, "Language and Cognitive Assessment of Negro Children: Assumptions and Research Needs, *ASHA* 11, no. 3 (1969): 87–91.

[4] W. A. Stewart, "On the Use of Negro Dialect in the Teaching of Reading," in J. Baratz and R. Shuy, *Teaching Black Children to Read* (Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969).

The ethnocentrism in social science which sets up norms and declares differences from those norms to be deviances, and which tends to confuse unique manifestations of a universal behavior for the universal itself, is not, however, the only reason why social scientists have tended to ignore the contribution of black culture to the understanding of black behavior.

The sociopolitical myths surrounding our concepts of cultural assimilation

Three particular American sociopolitical beliefs have contributed greatly to the social scientist's denial of the black culture (and, indeed, the culture of other white ethnic groups). The first involves the melting-pot myth and a confusion over the concept of egalitarianism; the second concerns the fact that it was the racists, with their theory of genetic inferiority, who used culturally rooted behavioral differences to support their erroneous theory; the third involves the distortions of black cultural history under slavery which gave rise to what Herskovits so aptly described as the "myth of the Negro past."

The melting-pot myth and the confusion over the concept of egalitarianism. The basic doctrine that all men are created equal has been misinterpreted by egalitarians to read "all men are created equal if they behave in the same manner." This confusion of egalitarianism with behavioral and cultural conformity has been supported by one of the basic components of the American dream—the melting-pot myth. According to this myth, America is the melting pot where peoples from diverse cultures came together and created the American culture which is distinct from the individual cultures that contributed to it. American society, then, according to the melting-pot analogy, is the result of the elimination of the impurities, along with the blending of the best elements of those diverse cultures.

It is interesting to note that until recently there has been little discussion of the contribution of African culture to the American mainstream. This is no doubt due to the supposition on the one hand that Afro-Americans had no culture, and the assumption on the other hand that the different behaviors which they exhibited constituted the greatest of the impurities which the melting pot would eliminate. As a result, those aspects of the mainstream system which blacks share with whites have assumedly been derived from white behavior, rather than resulting from the African contribution to the melting pot. The white Southerner is particularly proud of his "southern hospitality." But Herskovits has noted that certain aspects of polite behavior in the South appear to have no antecedent in European cultures, while they *can* be traced to African patterns of interaction.[5] Again, West African specialist Dalby has pointed out that "uh huh" and "uh uh," formerly assumed to be the result of the typical informal American way, actually appear to be derived from several African languages where "uh huh" is the word for "yes" and "uh uh" is the word for "no."[6] (The verbal-conditioning researchers have yet to acknowledge this contribution!)

The melting-pot myth not only assumed a distinct American culture derived from but not retaining various ethnic styles; it also presumed that the acculturation to the American way occurred by virtue of one's mere residence on American soil. That is, any second-generation American automatically became acculturated into the mainstream of American society. From this a peculiar logic evolved which assumed that to speak of the retention of ethnic differences in behavior was to be "un-American" insofar as any such discussion would contradict the American dream. In addition, it would indicate that the impurities of one's distinct ethnic identity could not be eliminated simply by living in America, the melting pot. This faulty (but nonetheless prevalent) logic postulates that (1) since America is indeed the melting pot, and (2) since the melting pot eliminates all cultural impurities, then (3) the residue of distinct ethnic behavior retained over several generations of living in America must represent the genetic element of behavior. Since the Afro-American has been in this country since the early seventeenth century, this poor logic concludes that to say he behaves differently from whites due to cultural retention of African patterns is comparable to calling him genetically inferior.

This faulty logic, coupled with the fact that racists used the behavioral differences which they observed between blacks and whites to "prove" the innate inferiority of Afro-Americans and to justify slavery, has made it extremely uncomfortable for social scientists to give credence to and explore the behavioral differences between ethnic groups. The difficulty here is that, in rejecting the racists' theory about black behavior, the social scientist also rejected the behavior itself. It is the general thesis of the cultural-difference model that the *intolerance* of ethnic behavioral differences, not their *existence*, is what constitutes racism.[7]

Racist descriptions of black behavior and their interpretation of that behavior. The genetic racists lived for the most part in close proximity with the black community; they had ample opportunity to study and describe black behavior. The behavior described by the racists was not contrived by perverse minds. The bigot did not have to invent his data —it was there; it abounds. Many Afro-Americans, for example, *do* roll their eyes, perform a little dance when they laugh, speak a distinct dialect, establish extended-family kinship systems, and dress differently. What the bigot did, because he (like today's social scientists) was unaware of the role of culture in determining behavior, was to invent a theory of racial inferiority to explain the differences. Thus Ambrose Gonzales, a white racist and a fluent speaker of the black Creole dialect, Gullah, wrote black folktales down in grammatically accurate Gullah but then erroneously described blacks who spoke this Creolized dialect as using "slovenly and careless speech."[8] In spite of his accurate recording of the dialect he concluded, because of his naïveté about language and his need to explain the differences, that the grammatical differences he observed between standard English and Gullah were due to the "characteristic laziness" of the Negro rather than to the existence of the distinct grammatical system he so aptly recorded.

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[5] M. J. Herskovits, *The Myth of the Negro Past* (New York: Harper, 1941).

[6] See Dalby article in this volume.

[7] S. Baratz and J. C. Baratz, "Early Childhood Intervention: The Social Science Base of Institutional Racism," *Harvard Educational Review* 40, no. 1 (Winter, 1970): 29–50.

We have pointed out elsewhere[9] that the pathology-riddled conceptualization of black dialect as given by the racists (despite their accurate recording of that dialect) agrees in many ways with the conceptualization of that language given by contemporary egalitarian psychologists such as Hunt and Deutsch[10]—only the explanation of how he got that way (substitute "inadequate mothering" for "characteristic laziness") is different. One may, therefore, accept the accuracy of the dialect recording (the raw data) but not accept the explanation and conceptualization of that data.

But even when this is done and the existence of these differences is acknowledged, some social scientists have protested the overriding preoccupation of the difference theory with the description of cultural differences. They assert that too much time is spent describing the differences between blacks and whites rather than focusing on their similarities. To this we must clearly assert, as Hannerz and Erickson already have,[11] that it is precisely the differences in cultural behavior that interfere with the development of true biculturalism in the Afro-American. Further, it is the misreading and misunderstanding of those differences which interfere in our everyday interactions with Afro-Americans and which communicate to the black man our basic ethnocentrism and racism.

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[8] A. Gonzales, *The Black Border: Gullah Stories of the Carolina Coast* (Columbia, S. C.: State Publishing Co., 1922), p. 10.

[9] Baratz and Baratz, "Early Childhood Intervention."

[10] J. McV. Hunt, "Toward the Prevention of Incompetence," in J. W. Carter, ed., *Research Contributions from Psychology to Community Mental Health* (New York: Behavioral Publications, 1968), pp. 19–45; M. Deutsch, "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 35 (1965): 78–88.

[11] Ulf Hannerz, *Soulside: Inquiries into Ghetto Culture and Community* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1969); F. D. Erickson, personal communication, 1969.

Nonetheless, perhaps the social scientist's tendency to dismiss the racist's data was not simply because it was tied to an abhorrent theory of genetic inferiority but, more important, because social science had not developed the methodologies to describe culturally different microbehaviors and to assess the effect of those microbehaviors on interpersonal contacts. Thus social science could only equate observation of the culturally different behaviors described by the racists with stereotyped expression of prejudice. While it cannot be denied that use of the term "prejudice" is appropriate in this instance, since the interpretation of the behaviors by the racist led to a conception of inferiority, it is interesting to note that the negative concept "stereotype" is the only way that social science has developed to deal with culturally linked microbehaviors. These behaviors are very important, for they are learned early in the child's life and are often out of awareness and most subtle. They appear to be strong evidence for the ethnic identification of the New World Afro-American with his African brother.

The myth of the Negro past. The acceptance of the melting-pot myth and the rejection of the genetic inferiority myth are not the only reasons for social science's failure to recognize and discuss behavioral differences between whites and blacks (and indeed, differences among the various white ethnic groups that constitute American mainstream society). There is one other prevalent American myth which has allowed the behavioral sciences to ignore the role of culture in maintaining distinctive black behavioral patterns; Herskovits has aptly labeled this the "myth of the Negro past." Briefly stated, the myth of the Negro past asserts that the naïveté of social scientists concerning the processes of acculturation has led them to assume that the black man lost all of his characteristic African behaviors merely because he was forcibly removed from Africa and resided on American soil for several generations in slavery. Such a myth invariably leads to explaining black behavior as pathological and due to oppression; the myth can only be perpetuated in the absence of significant inputs from ethnohistorians and microbehaviorists.

Ignorance concerning the fundamental notion of culture

It is this myth of the Negro past coupled with ignorance concerning the cultural process which led Glazer and Moynihan naïvely to assert that "the Negro is only an American and nothing else. He has no values

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and culture to guard and protect."[12] Because the psychologist and the sociologist did not understand the acculturative process whereby a distinct cultural form becomes transmuted, they assumed, for example, that since Afro-Americans no longer spoke African languages, no longer used African ritual in marriage ceremonies, and no longer wore African dress, they therefore retained no cultural distinctiveness. This assumption left social scientists with no other alternative than to wrongly describe the Creolized black dialect used by the Afro-American as "poorly learned English," the matrifocal family unit so prevalent in lower-class black society as "evidence of male emasculation," the extended kinship systems as "disorganized families;" and the clothing choices as "poor taste."

While Afro-Americans are not native speakers of the African languages of their forebears, it is nonetheless true that the dialect of English which many blacks speak includes forms that are substantially similar in structure to the African languages of their ancestors.[13]

As Hannerz has pointed out in regard to interpreting family forms of black Americans, "while specific marriages were broken up [by enslavement] the conscious models of and for marriage could well remain and influence the form of union adopted under new circumstances [during slavery]." Adaptation of new forms is always influenced by existing forms; it does not occur in a "cultural vacuum."

Perhaps the best example of how existing cultural patterns effect the adaptation of new forms comes from examining how Afro-American culture in the United States has dealt with efforts to infuse African styles into the Creolized culture. The "black is beautiful" emphasis in black rhetoric has not simply transferred African hairstyles to the Afro-American community; rather, it has modified them in accordance with certain distinctively New World Afro-American cultural values: namely, that the female should have longer hair than the male. Thus one finds the adaptation of the African bush by Afro-American girls—but with the Americanized aspect of having large, "long hair" bushes as opposed to the typical close-cut bushes of African women. Again, we find that Afro-American women, rather than taking up the dress styles of African women, have instead modified the African male costume—the dashiki—to suit American female dressing patterns. The addition of wire-rimmed glasses and turtlenecks only add to the phenomena described.

It is important for social scientists to understand some basic anthropological concepts in terms of dealing with distinct cultures and the acculturative process. A fundamental anthropological concept is that of cultural relativity. The anthropologist approaches his description of cultural differences within a framework of linear rather than hierarchical perspectives. Matrifocal, patrifocal, monogamous, and polygamous societies are merely evidences of the various social structures that groups evolve. One is intrinsically no more valuable a structural ordering than the next.

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[12] N. Glazer and D. P. Moynihan, *Beyond the Melting Pot* (Cambridge: The MIT Press and Harvard University Press, 1963).

[13] W. A. Stewart, "Continuity and Change in American Negro Dialect," *Florida Language Report* 7 (1968): 1ff.

In addition, as Herskovits and Bascom have pointed out:

> [It is culture rather than social institution that] distinguishes man from the rest of the biological world. Other animals, and insects as well, have societies, but only man uses language, manufactures tools, and possesses art, religion and other aspects of culture. The concern with culture, rather than with society and social institutions thus emphasizes the specifically human elements of man's behavior.
>
> Culture varies from group to group and from one period of time to another within any single group. From this follows a principle of fundamental scientific importance and of equal practical significance: what has been learned can be modified through further learning; habits, customs, beliefs, social structures, and institutions can change.[14]

A perspective that views distinct Afro-American behavioral patterns through this type of cultural framework recognizes that those patterns existing today are not merely the result of oppression but the product of the interaction of distinctly African cultures with the slavery and post-emancipation American society. In fact, perhaps the very strengths of the African culture allowed for successful adaptation and survival of the African under slavery both in Africa and in the New World.

Social scientists have not only been ignorant of the fundamental notion of culture difference as used by anthropologists; they have also confounded the issue by adding a notion of cultural difference which has little relation to that of the anthropologist. Thus, for example, statistically significant differences on standardized tasks between blacks and whites are what most psychologists assume to be cultural differences. But the uniformly lower scores of black children on IQ tests are not cultural differences in the anthropological sense. These scores when viewed by anthropologists are merely a manifestation of actual cultural differences—the dialect, rhetorical style, epistemology, and response styles of the distinctive black culture.

For the social scientist the difference is in terms of his alleged universalistic norm. For the anthropologist the difference is tied to the varying ways in which man has chosen to define his world. As we have indicated elsewhere,[15] IQ scores of black children when viewed within an anthropological framework actually indicate the degree to which they have bought into, or learned, the mainstream culture; they do not indicate the potential of black children for buying into the system, as is the interpretation given to such scores by the psychologist.

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[14] M. J. Herskovits and W. R. Bascom, "The Problem of Stability and Change in African Culture," in Bascom and Herskovits, eds., *Continuity and Change in African Cultures* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959), pp. 1, 2.

Thus, from the perspective advanced here, IQ tests as presently formulated are inadequate measures of black intellectual potential since they are not culture specific. Construction of culture-specific tests of IQ is not an extraordinary task for psychologists. The Binet test originally in French was translated into standard English and modified in accordance with the mainstream American culture. The resulting Stanford-Binet was then retranslated for language and culture differences for use in England. Why, then, do we not have such a translation for use with Afro-Americans? It is the absence of a meaningful conception of black culture, and, as Dillard has pointed out, it is the assumption that Afro-Americans speak defective English rather than a distinctive dialect which has led most psychologists to assume that IQ tests such as the Stanford-Binet could be used on black populations without fear of marked cultural bias.[16] Such a translation is urgently needed and is indeed a priority item for the New Social Science.

Embarrassment of the black middle-class and white liberals about dealing with behavioral differences

The ready availability of a deficit model and its half-sister the culture of poverty model, the belief in certain of the sociopolitical myths of the country, and a naïve view of culture were not the only reasons that social scientists used for not dealing with behavioral differences. There has been a "politeness conspiracy" about not talking of behavioral differences even when they are most apparent. Since these differences have been viewed as pejorative and deviant by most social scientists, to discuss them in great detail was assumed to be rude and tantamount to discussing a hunchback's hump with him.

Another more pressing reason why both middle-class blacks and liberal whites have been reluctant to discuss these differences is fear that such discussions will be used maliciously by racists to support their theories of black inferiority. The difficulty here is twofold: (1) not talking about the differences does nothing to make them disappear, and (2) not recognizing the distinctive behaviors within a cultural model leaves the liberal with only one alternative: that of calling the Afro-

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[15] S. Baratz, "Social Science Conceptualization of the Afro-American," in J. Szwed, ed., *Black America* (New York: Basic Books, 1970), pp. 55–56.

[16] J. L. Dillard, *Black English in the United States* (New York: Random House, in press).

American a sick white man—sick in the social rather than genetic sense.

It is precisely this latter train of thought that the black militants use when discussing the racism in social science. We have elsewhere indicated the legitimacy of the claim of ethnocentrism of the social sciences by blacks;[17] however, black rhetoricians' demands that white social scientists no longer do research on the Afro-American is not an adequate solution to the problem. We make this assertion because the absence of anthropologists' insightful views of the ghetto and the overriding deficit orientation of previous research have coincided with the extreme demands of identity denial in the process of integration. These factors in combination have often produced professional black social scientists who have little conception of black culture outside the culture-of-poverty model. Integration, as built into our society and conceptualized by the psychological contact hypothesis of Allport, Pettigrew, and Cook,[18] demands denial of most distinctively black behaviors in order to succeed in the white society. Those blacks who have made it, who have learned to censure distinctive cultural behaviors as the price of integration, have had a stake in disaffiliating themselves from the culture and in denying the legitimacy of these very obvious culturally related behaviors. Indeed, the price of integration for the upward-mobile black man has been continuous tension and anxiety lest distinctively black behavior seep through. The circle here is closed once one realizes that most current black rhetoricians in the social sciences are seeking ways of regaining affiliations with the community which they themselves rejected as a result of this process. Further, one must recognize that this attempt is no small task, for the professional skills that blacks have to offer their brothers are often no more than those characteristic of the deficit model. One need only examine Cobb and Grier's *Black Rage* or Green's comments on black dialect to realize how easy it is for even the most angry militants to fall into the trap of the deficit model.

In a frank and open admission Green, co-chairman of the Association of Black Psychologists, indicates his frustrating work with youngsters in Oakland: "I found that much of the slang terminology was rather incomprehensible to me."[19] It is quite clear that Green saw the dialect system not as a well-structured and lawful system but as an inadequate and substandard form of standard English very much like that described by Martin Deutsch and Vera John:

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[17] S. Baratz, "Social Science Strategies."

[18] G. W. Allport, *The Nature of Prejudice* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1954); T. Pettigrew, *A Profile of the Negro American* (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1964); S. W. Cook, "Desegregation: A Psychological Analysis," *American Psychiatrist* 12 (1957): 1–13.

[19] R. Green, "Dialect Sampling and Language Values," in R. Shuy, ed., *Social Dialects and Language Learning* (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964), pp. 120–23.

> The very inadequate speech that is used in the home is also used in the neighborhood, in the play group, and in the classroom. Since these poor English patterns are reconstructed constantly by the associations that these young people have, the school has to play a strong role in bringing about a change in order that these young people can communicate more adequately in our society.[20]

The middle-class black man, no less than others, has been concerned with stereotypes and not with cultural differences. He has been the one at the cultural crossroads who has borne the brunt of white misreading of black behavior; it is he who has the identity crisis in the black community. Taking all of the above together it is no wonder that discussions of the existence of black cultural differences (such as black dialect) will meet with suspicion of racism, and denial of its existence, and an insistence on its pathology by most middle-class blacks. But one must bear in mind that it is only with the recognition of a culturally different system that we can hope for biculturalism in which the Afro-American can learn the white cultural system without having to reject his own system—and, in so doing, himself. In recognizing a distinct cultural system, we also realize how much whites can learn from black culture. Biculturalism is a two-way street.

The new social science

What, then, is the New Social Science as applied to questions of racism and the problems of Afro-Americans in our society? Our model has been the reevaluation of most research dealing with Afro-Americans in terms of the possibility of intrusion of an ethnocentric bias into data-gathering and interpretation. The model rests on a need for greater description of black cultural and linguistic phenomena and a determination of the adequacy of fit—call it confrontation, if you will—of the existing body of experimental data with these findings. The model also rests on a definition of racism not previously advanced: that is, racism is the denial and/or denigration of cultural differences. Institutional racism, therefore, is the degree to which social policy is based upon social science studies which deny those differences.

We feel strongly that this reevaluation of social science will provide the base for new and different research in the future. We also feel that if social science is to be truly relevant it must begin to understand that it shares responsibility for white racism in this country in a most profound way. The way to correct this previous unconscionable direction of our thinking is not to stop all research, but once and for all to admit the legitimacy of a cultural system too long demeaned and obscured by ethnocentrism. Our call, therefore, is not for less but for more research which will not only produce a better understanding of black culture but above all a better understanding of the process whereby a seemingly value-free methodology could produce gross distortions of the very subject-matter of the methodology. Only when we have understood the culture of the Afro-American can we be in the position to suggest to society and its policy-makers solutions to our current pressing concerns.

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[20] Ibid., p. 123.

SELECTED READING IV-3

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND THE INTERCULTURAL ENCOUNTER

by

Melvin Schnapper

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NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION AND THE INTERCULTURAL ENCOUNTER

Melvin Schnapper

An American nurse is accused by Ethiopian townspeople of treating Ethiopians like dogs. An American teacher in Nigeria has great trouble getting any discipline in his class, and it is known that the students have no respect for him because he has shown no self-respect.

Even though neither American has offended his hosts with words, both of them are unaware of the offense they have communicated by their nonverbal behavior.

These two examples cite but one aspect of the intercultural encounter. This occurs whenever persons from different cultures meet, be they from different countries or from different racial or ethnic groups within one country. Whenever such persons encounter each other, they are apt to miscommunicate because of their different values, assumptions, perceptions, experiences, language (even if they speak the "same" language), and nonverbal communication patterns.

Though a great deal of attention has been given to the intercultural encounter, it is only recently that people in the training field have been given systematic preparation for the intercultural encounter. One aspect of this encounter that is still neglected in training is nonverbal communication.

NONVERBAL DIFFERENCES

In the first example, the nurse working at a health center would enter the waiting room and call for the next patient as she would in the States—by pointing with her finger to the patient and beckoning him to come. This pointing gesture is acceptable in the States, but in Ethiopia it is for children—and her beckoning signal is for dogs! In Ethiopia one points to a person by extending the arm and hand, and beckons by holding the hand out, palm down, and closing the hand repeatedly.

In the second example, the teacher insisted that students look him in the eye to show attentiveness—in a country where prolonged eye contact is considered disrespectful.

While the most innocent American/English gesture may have insulting, embarrassing, or at least confusing connotations in another culture, the converse also is true. If a South American were to bang on his table and hiss at the waiter for service in a New York restaurant, he would be fortunate if all that happened were his being thrown out! Americans usually feel that Japanese students in the U.S. are obsequious because they bow frequently. Male African students in the U.S. will be stared at for holding hands in public.

It seems easier to accept the arbitrariness of language—that dog is *chien* in French or *cane* in Italian—than the different behaviors of nonverbal communication, which in many ways are just as arbitrary as language.

We assume that our way of talking and gesturing is "natural" and that those who behave differently are deviating from what is natural. This assumption leads to a blind spot about cross-cultural behavior differences. And the individual is likely to remain blind and unaware of the effect of his nonverbal communications, because the hosts will seldom tell him that he has committed a social blunder. It is rude to tell people they are rude; thus, the hosts grant the foreigner a "foreigner's license," allowing him to make mistakes of social etiquette, and he never knows until too late which ones will prove disastrous.

An additional handicap is that the foreigner does not enter the new setting free of his cultural background, able to see and adopt new ways of communicating without words. He is a prisoner of his own culture and interacts within his own framework. Yet the fact remains that for maximum understanding, the visiting American must learn to use not only the words of another language, but also the tools of that culture's nonverbal communication.

Though language fluency has achieved its proper recognition as being essential for success overseas, knowledge of nonverbal behavior should also be introduced to the trainee in a systematic way, offering him actual experiences to increase his awareness and sensitivity. Indeed, it is the rise in linguistic fluency that now makes nonverbal fluency even more critical. A linguistically fluent person may offend even more easily than those who do not speak as well, if he shows ignorance about interface etiquette. The host national may perceive this disparity between linguistic and nonlinguistic performance as a disregard for the more subtle aspects of intercultural communication. Because nonverbal cues reflect emotional states, both foreigner and host national might not be able to articulate what is occurring between them.

CRITICAL DIMENSIONS

While it would be difficult to map out all the nonverbal details for every language, one can make people aware of the existence and emotional importance of the nonverbal dimensions. These dimensions of nonverbal communication exist in every culture. The patterns and forms are often arbitrary, and it is disputable which are universal and which are culture specific. At least five such dimensions can be defined: kinesic, proxemic, chronemic, oculesic, and haptic.

Kinesics

Movement of the body (head, arms, legs, etc.) falls into this dimension. In the initial example of the nurse at the health center in Ethiopia, the problem was caused by a kinesic sign being used which had a different meaning cross-culturally. Another example: The American gesture of slitting one's throat, implying "I've had it" or "I'm in trouble," conveys quite a different message in Swaziland. It means "I love you."

Americans make no distinction between gesturing for silence to an adult or to a child. An American will put one finger to his lips for both, while an Ethiopian will use only one finger for a child and four fingers for an adult. To use only one finger for an adult is disrespectful. On the other hand, Ethiopians make no distinction in gesturing to indicate emphatic negation. They shake their index finger from side to side to an adult as well as to a child, whereas this gesture is used only for children by Americans. Thus, if the American is not conscious of the meaning of such behavior, he not only will offend his hosts, but also will feel offended by them.

Drawing in the cheeks and holding the arms rigidly by the side of the body means "thin" in Amharic. Diet-conscious Americans feel complimented if they are told that they are slim, and thus they may naturally assume that the same comment to an Ethiopian friend is also complimentary. Yet in Ethiopia and a number of other countries, this comment is pejorative; it is thought better to be heavyset, indicating health and status and enough wealth to insure the two.

Proxemics

The use of interpersonal space is another dimension of nonverbal communication. South Americans, Greeks, and others are comfortable standing, sitting, or talking to people at a distance that most North Americans find intolerably close. We interpret this unusual closeness as aggressiveness or intimacy, which causes us to have feelings of hostility, discomfort, or intimidation. If we back away to the greater distance that *we* find comfortable, we are perceived as being cold, unfriendly, and distrustful. In contrast, Somalis would see us as we see South Americans, since the Somalis' interface distance is still greater than ours.

Chronemics

The timing of verbal exchanges during conversation is chronemics. As Americans, we expect our

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partner to respond to our statements immediately. In some other cultures, people time their exchanges to leave silence between a statement and its response. For Americans this silence is unsettling. To us it may mean that the person is shy, inattentive, bored, or nervous. It causes us to repeat, paraphrase, talk louder, and "correct" our speech to accommodate our partner. In an intercultural situation, however, it would be best to tolerate the silence and wait for a response.

Oculesics

Eye-to-eye contact or avoidance is another nonverbal dimension. Americans are dependent on eye contact as a sign of listening. We do not feel that there is human contact without eye contact. But many countries follow elaborate patterns of eye avoidance which we regard as inappropriate.

Haptics

The tactile form of communication is a fifth dimension. Where, how, and how often people can touch each other while conversing are culturally defined patterns. We need not go beyond the borders of our own country to see groups (Italians and blacks, for example) that touch each other more often than Anglo-Americans do. Overseas, Americans often feel crowded and pushed around by people who have a much higher tolerance for public physical contact and even need it as part of their communication process. An American may feel embarrassed when a host-national friend continues to hold his hand long after the formal greetings are over.

These five dimensions are by no means exhaustive. The list is literally infinite and may include such things as dress, posture, smell, colors, time, and many others.

PREPARATION FOR DIFFERENCES

There are ways of helping people prepare for critical cross-cultural differences, and there are some significant, additional benefits that trainees can gain through an appropriate training technique.

The critical need for nonverbal communication skills is unquestioned, but trainers differ as to whether and how these skills can be taught. While some trainers recognize that proficiency in nonverbal communication would help reduce unnecessary strain between Americans and host nationals, others dismiss its importance, feeling that trainees will simply "pick it up" or that it can be dealt with as a list of "do's and don't's." Occasionally, a language teacher recognizes its possibilities, but generally nonverbal communication has been dealt with in a very haphazard way. The fact that nonverbal interaction is a part of every encounter between an American and a host national should be enough to signify its importance.

TRAINING TECHNIQUES

The goal of making trainees aware of and sensitive to nonverbal communication differences has been achieved by having them simulate a communication situation. This results in emotional responses similar to those that would occur in particular intercultural situations. Trainees are then encouraged to practice these new simulated behaviors until it becomes a natural and comfortable part of their repertoire of communication skills.

Self-Awareness

One technique in this approach is to divide a group of trainees into dyads and ask one member of each dyad to act in a prescribed nonverbal manner that will elicit feelings of discomfort in the other person about his partner's "strange" behavior.

As a sample exercise on proxemic behavior (use of space), the trainees are divided into two groups. Separately, each group discusses issues like "Why we want to go overseas" or "Anticipated difficulties overseas." Then, members of one group are told that when they rejoin the other group and are matched with their partners, they are to establish a comfortable distance and then decrease it by one inch each minute or by prearranged signals from the trainer. Signals could include the trainer's moving from one spot in the room to another or his stopping the group to find out what specifics they talked about and then asking them to continue. In this case, his questions should be about the content of the conversation, not about the experiment in process. When the distance has been shortened by six inches or more, the nondirected partners will experience discomfort and, consciously or unconsciously, will start moving away.

It is easy at this point to explain that the directed partners were imitating the "comfort distance" of South Americans and that if the undirected partners were to retreat in the same way with a Latin, the Latin would think them unfriendly and cold. Conversely, in Somalia, it would be the American who would be perceived as aggressive by standing too close for Somali comfort.

Basically, this technique attempts to sensitize trainees to many other behavior patterns of nonverbal communication by taking an "informed" partner and a "control" partner and directing the former to alter his nonverbal behavior in a gradual manner to make his partner react. Both persons will have an emotional or visceral reaction, which they can share at the conclusion of each exercise. Emphasis is placed on the reciprocal nature of the partners' discomfort and confusion.

These group sensitizing techniques are based on the principle that people will react emotionally and will give social meaning to alterations of standard American patterns of nonverbal behavior, e.g., when someone blinks often, he is nervous; if he avoids eye contact, he is insecure, untrustworthy; if he does not nod his head in agreement or shake it in disagreement, he is not paying attention. And generally our interpretation is correct—if the other person is an American.

Role-Playing

In addition to group experiences with a self-awareness emphasis, there are role-playing techniques in which nonverbal patterns of the target language/culture group are emphasized. Trainees watch and interpret. A dialogue with the host-national role-player helps the trainees discover what cues were misread and what the consequences of their misinterpretation could be.

Potential areas of discomfort for both the American and the host national are further explored after a trainee and the host-national role-player have engaged in a role-playing activity with the host national critiquing the trainee's behavior. The purpose of these role-plays is not to imitate behavior but to explore emotional reactions. The focus is on model behavior of a certain culture without accounting for the idiosyncratic differences between individuals in that culture.

ADDITIONAL BENEFITS

The discussions following the training exercises are, in part, an attempt to merge the traditionally separate components of language and cultural studies as usually presented in training programs. Trainees can achieve a foundation of awareness and skill that will allow them to continue developing their personal inventory of language behaviors. Training for nonverbal communication serves as an excellent orientation for an immersion language program in which speaking any English is discouraged. A heightened awareness of nonverbal behavior will reduce both the trainees' temptation to discard the use of the target language and also their overall frustration. Nonverbal behavior is not a new communication tool they must learn but one whose potential has been dormant.

And, finally, the study of nonverbal communication introduces activities and discussions that are both interesting and fun, while encouraging trainees and language instructors to look at their perceptions of each other. Very often trainees hesitate to ask intimate questions of host nationals. This format offers them and host nationals situations where potentially controversial topics can be discussed dispassionately. Corollary activities might involve movies, videotapes, and photographs of common interface situations.

Host nationals who have worked with this approach have found it fascinating. Once the atmosphere of mutual exploration has been established, host nationals find that this method gives them a chance to explore their own cultural patterns as well as those of the trainees. It also goes a long way toward clearing up misconceptions the host-country national may have developed while interacting with Americans. As part of a training program, this technique typically receives a very high evaluation from trainees and language teachers.

Of course, there is no guarantee that heightened awareness will truly lead to changed behavior. Indeed, there are situations in which an American should not alter his behavior, depending on his status, role, personality, and his ultimate objectives for being in the host country.

The attempt to make Americans more aware of their interpersonal relations overseas (left to chance for too long) is based partly on the assumption that a person will be sensitized to nonverbal differences because he is surrounded by them. While true for many people, it is also true, however, that many will remain oblivious to nonverbal differences even though exposed to them daily for many years.

Awareness in Domestic Situations

Although the focus thus far has been on the American/non-American dimensions of intercultural communication, much of what has been said applies equally well to domestic interracial and intergroup communication. Recent studies indicate that the oculesic and proxemic norms between whites and blacks differ to the extent that real miscommunication often occurs.

These concepts and specific training techniques have also been used successfully with groups who work in domestic multicultural situations. The emphasis on awareness works best when the trainee group itself is multicultural. This allows the group members' different reactions to the changed norms to validate the existence of nonverbal differences.

Persons with extensive intercultural experience benefit greatly from this approach, since they already have had prolonged contact with cross-cultural differences.

The useful technique of heightening the awareness of cultural differences should alert many people to attend more closely to an often-neglected part of the intercultural encounter—nonverbal communication.

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MODULE V

MODULE V: COURSE DELIVERY: METHODS AND MEDIA TIME: 3 HOURS

GOALS

- To make the design connection between course objectives, training tasks, and method/media choice
- To provide familiarity with a wide group of media choices
- To give participants an armamentarium from which to redesign segments of a course package in order to make the learning activity more relevant to a particular trainee population.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- List at least two methods that effectively correspond to each of the learning domains
- Describe three considerations for media/method choice (objectives, pacing, and audience)
- State which methods (and their related domain) are most often well received by adult learners and why
- State those methods they are familiar with, and list those in which they want to gain experience.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET V-1
SMALL GROUP EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

To expose participants to methods and media with which they may not be familiar.

To give participants an opportunity to design or redesign a segment of a course.

To give a few participants an opportunity to practice delivery skills.

MATERIALS:

Newsprint
Felt-tip Markers

PROCEDURE:

1. As a group, imagine that you are delivering TOT. Pick a 15-to 20-minute segment or learning activity from any part of Modules I through IV.

2. As a group, chose an alternative way of presenting the material in that section. You might redefine the audience or the objectives, for example.

3. As a group, choose a method(s) and, where appropriate, media that would meet the objectives for the portion of the course you are about to plan.

4. As a group, outline what will be presented to and/or dealt with experientially with trainers. That is, outline or write down instructions.

5. Choose one or two participants to deliver the learning piece and help him or her to practice.

   Prepare any explanatory statements that group members might want to make to the large group after the presentation.

6. Reconvene in the large group and follow trainer instructions for delivery.

TIME:

30 minutes for small group activity
40 minutes for delivery of material
20 minutes for discussion
90 minutes total

REFERENCE SHEET V-1
USE OF AUDIOVISUAL MEDIA*

The expert use of transparencies, filmstrips, and other audiovisual media contributes immeasurably to any training event. Attention is focused on key issues, major principles are highlighted, and difficult concepts are expertly presented. Careful integration of audiovisual materials with the content will quicken the pace of the presentation and enliven the training event. On the other hand, audiovisual materials can seriously disrupt a presentation if the trainer is inept in the use of the equipment. Fumbling with transparencies that are out of sequence, searching for an extension cord, fiddling with the projector, or having a filmstrip out of synchronization with the sound track are problems that inevitably will plague the ill-prepared trainer. As a result, the pace of the session lags and the group's interest wanes.

The equipment is basically simple to operate. With careful set up and a brief practice period before the start of a session, it will function smoothly and fit into the presentation without a break in the continuity. The following sections explain the operation of the audiovisual equipment needed for presentation of these training materials and give tips on effective use.

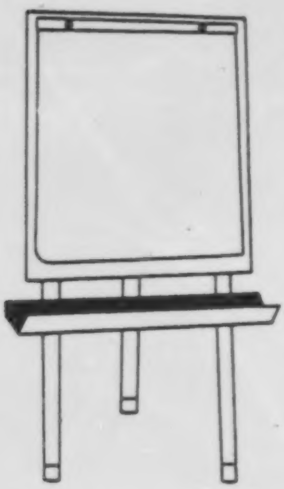
Flipcharts - Flipchart paper and tripods (see Figure 1) may be purchased at art stores, office supply stores, or university bookstores. The local school may also be able to provide or tell you where to obtain such equipment. If standard tripods and flipchart paper are not available, they may be improvised using large sheets of newsprint (at least 27 x 34 inches) of the type used for painting in kindergarten. The newsprint can be taped to the wall or to a movable chalkboard.

The advantages of flipcharts are that they require no technical knowledge to operate and they can be displayed in the training area for continuous reference throughout a session. Two important things to remember about using flipcharts are: 1) write large and legibly, and 2) keep the information presented brief, using key words or short phrases rather than complete sentences.

*This article was reprinted from Training of Trainers, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Publication No. (NDACTRD) 79-091P, 1978. Adapted from courses published by the National Center for Alcohol Education.

Masking tape is recommended for attaching flipchart paper to walls as the paint or plaster is less likely to be removed when the tape is pulled off.

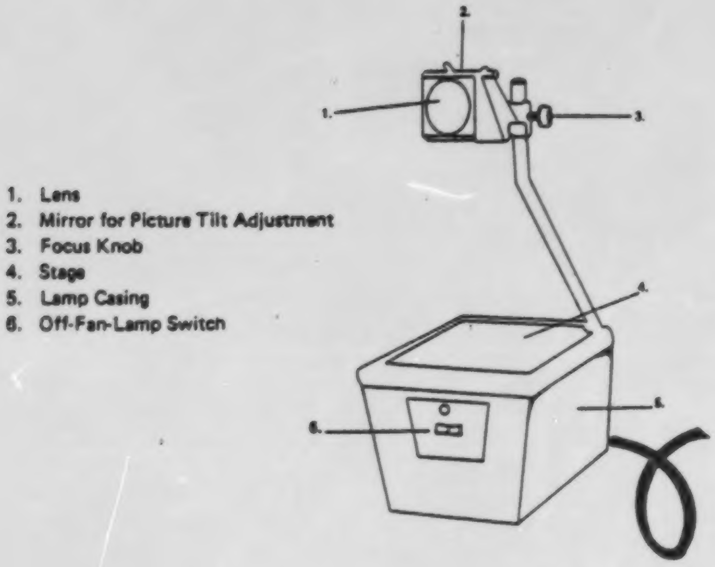
Figure 1. Flipchart and tripod



The Overhead Projector - The overhead projector (see Figure 2) enlarges images printed on transparent acetate sheets and projects them on a screen. It is used with the trainer facing the group so that eye contact with the participants can be maintained. Since the room does not have to be darkened to use an overhead projector, the logistics are simplified.

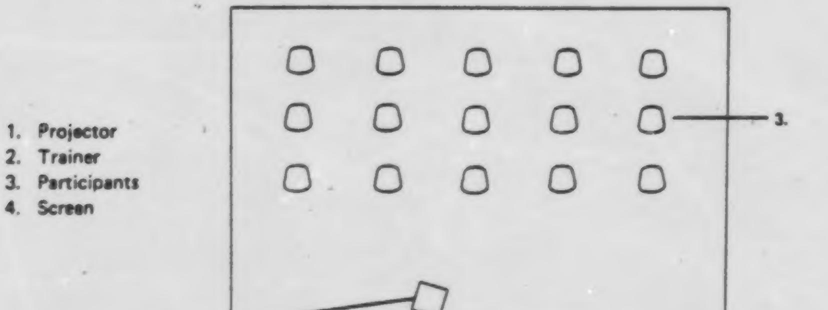
Overhead transparencies are not necessary to this training program. However, a trainer who has access to an overhead projector and screen and who feels comfortable using this type of audiovisual equipment may choose to convert some of the information presented on flipcharts to transparencies for an overhead projector.

Figure 2. Overhead projector


1. Lens
2. Mirror for Picture Tilt Adjustment
3. Focus Knob
4. Stage
5. Lamp Casing
6. Off-Fan-Lamp Switch
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

To operate, set up the projector and screen as illustrated in Figure 3.

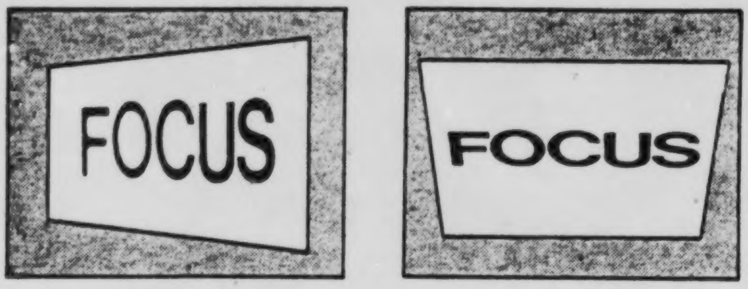
Figure 3. Proper placement of overhead projector


1. Projector
2. Trainer
3. Participants
4. Screen
1.
2.
3.
4.

Place a transparency on the stage so that you can read it as you face the group. Turn on the light, and focus by turning the knob. Tilting the head of the machine with the tilt knob raises or lowers the beam of light.

The distance from the screen determines the size of the image area. Adjust it until the light fills the screen evenly and no dark edges are showing. If the image is distorted by the "keystone effect" (see Figure 4), correct by changing the position of the projector.

Figure 4. Keystone effect



Projector too far left

Projector too low

The overhead projector should only be left on when you want attention directed to the screen. Switching the projector off between visuals offers an opportunity to pinpoint attention on the screen each time a new visual is shown. When left on, it is a distraction that interferes with the presentation and group interaction. The overhead projector can be used as a chalkboard by placing a clear sheet of acetate on the stage and writing on it with a water-soluble, felt-tip pen or grease pencil. The acetate can be reused; just wipe off the pen or pencil marks.

When operating the overhead projector, remember these precautions:

- Turn the lamp to "Off" when changing transparencies.
- Always allow fan to run after turning off lamp to prevent heat buildup in the projector housing.
- Never move the projector when the lamp is hot. Hot filaments break easily.
- Always turn the lamp off and unplug projector when changing lamps. Both lamp and surrounding metal will be hot.
- Never handle a new lamp directly; use a piece of paper or handkerchief.
- Keep the projection stage clean.
- Clean lens as necessary.

Transparencies for use on the overhead projector can be made by a number of different methods, which range from simply writing information on a clear acetate sheet to using expensive multicolor heat or chemical transfer processes. The common types of photocopying equipment available in most offices easily convert printed or typed materials, line drawings, or premade transparency masters into transparency form. Acetate sheets are inserted in these machines according to manufacturer's directions and the master is reproduced in black and white on these sheets. The transparencies can be used unmounted or else framed in a cardboard holder (ordered from the local art or office supply stores) for ease of handling and storage. If an arrangement can be made with the audiovisual center in a local school, the diazo or heat process can be used to add color to the visuals. If such an arrangement can be made, the center staff will advise about which process is most effective and assist in use of the equipment. Having transparencies commercially reproduced is often prohibitively expensive, and therefore is not recommended.

REFERENCE SHEET V-2
SELECTING CURRICULUM CONTENT
by P.L. Lowery

It goes without saying that the content a trainer selects or creates must be harmonious with the learning objectives that have been established for the training. That is easy. What is not so easy is finding the right blend of art and science so that what the trainer puts together does what he wants it to do in the way that he wants it done. A piece from the New England Journal of Medicine discussing the possible teratogenic effects of hallucinogens may provide the necessary information, but the chances are good that many participants won't know what teratogenic means, never mind what kind of effects they may be. Perhaps a better source, depending on the audience, might be an article from a more popular magazine such as Psychology Today that discusses whether or not the use of hallucinogens produces birth defects. Or the trainer might have to pull together information from many sources and create his own resource piece.

A more difficult problem in selecting content is deciding how much information the audience needs in order to meet the learning objectives and be more effective in their work. Because the field of drug abuse is so diverse and complicated, it is sometimes tempting to try to give trainees a quick dash through everything that has been written. Not only is that impossible, some of the information may not be consistent with the points training should be trying to make. For example, if the goal is to train a group of community volunteers to handle a hotline, the trainer would probably want to stress the differing characteristics among drug abusers instead of overloading trainees with research that points out the common features of drug abusers' formative years or the similarities on personality inventories. That is not to say that such information isn't valid or that it should be discounted; it is to say that the goal is to help volunteers learn to respond to each caller as personally and sensitively as possible, to treat each caller as a special case. It's not likely that volunteers who have been told repeatedly that 98% of all drug abusers come from disrupted homes will pay as much attention to the fact that a caller may be failing in school, in a bad love affair, or frightened to death by drug-related symptoms. What the trainer must decide is how important each kind of information is to achieving the training goal.

REFERENCE SHEET V-3
LECTURE: DEVELOPING THE CURRICULUM

The first step in constructing a training program is to develop training goals and behavioral objectives. Next, the trainer needs to identify the curriculum: the appropriate content information, materials, and training aids. Curriculum is the planned course of study, involving trainee interaction with instructional content, resources, and processes for the purpose of attaining the behavioral objectives. Selecting or developing the curriculum is the second step in constructing the training program. Based on the behavioral objectives, the trainer researches information, reviews materials, and selects the specific content information that will be conveyed to participants during the training program.

Learning tasks form the bridge between behavioral objectives and the training design; they specify what the trainees must learn in order to achieve the behavioral objectives.

In the past, few designers of training have taken the time to specify learning tasks. Generally they determine a list of topics they think should be covered in the training session without thought about their relevance to the behavioral objectives. The process of deriving learning tasks forces the trainer to put himself in the position of a trainee and to consider each item that must be learned in order to accomplish the objectives. Specific learning tasks facilitate the process of selecting curriculum content because what has to be covered in the training session is delineated.

SELECTING THE CONTENT: DEVELOPING LEARNING TASKS

To select the content, the trainer must first ask himself: What must the trainees know to accomplish the behavioral objectives. What kinds of knowledge, attitudes, and skills must the trainee master to be able to demonstrate expected performance? What learning tasks will best impart this knowledge, shape these attitudes, or give practice in these skills? These learning tasks embrace whatever learning is to be undertaken by the trainee to enable him to accomplish the behavioral objectives.

Sometimes the learning task is almost the same as the performance specified in the behavioral objective, for example:

> At the end of the training, and without the aid of notes, the trainee will be able to identify at least three classifications of drugs subject to abuse.

The learning task, in this case, is to learn the names of the four classifications of drugs that are subject to abuse.

In most cases, however, many learning tasks are derived from one objective, for example:

At the end of the training, and without the aid of notes, the trainees will be able to identify at least four items of information obtained during an assessment interview that are used to determine client readiness for treatment.

The learning tasks, in this case, are:

1. To learn what an assessment interview is

2. To learn the categories of information to be obtained during an assessment interview

3. To learn the definition of and rationale for Category I of the assessment interview, Client Readiness

4. To learn what information is necessary to determine client readiness

To identify course content the trainer generates a list of learning tasks. This provides him with a focal point for selecting appropriate curriculum content.

In selecting content, the trainer should consider the specific characteristics of the leraning group and the individual differences among learners. The content selected has to be relevant to the trainees' abilities and aptitudes, their attention span and interests, needs, abilities to handle abstractness or concreteness, and their level and learning style.

ORGANIZING THE CONTENT

The sequence in which the content will be presented is determined to some extent by the notion of logical progression. It seems logical that one would not first discuss or practice the rudiments of scuba diving with a group of nonswimmers; they must swim before they can dive. Nor would a trainer jump from the first lesson in scuba diving to a lesson on various ways of identifying marine flora and fauna. A more likely progression would be from the rudiments of handling equipment to diving safety and underwater practice. Until the trainees can master the first step, they should not begin the second, and the third step requires a mastery of both step one and step two.

Another basis for determining the sequence of content is the type of learning represented by each task: a change in knowledge, attitude, or skills. For example, learning information about what the equipment is and how it should be used must precede skill-building practice on proper equipment use. Also, knowing that it is important to follow safety procedures does not necessarily guarantee that beginning scuba divers will have a "good" attitude toward safety. A demonstration in which the effects of carelessness are demonstrated might bring about the desired attitude. Both logical progression and the type of learning tasks involved should be taken into account when organizing and sequencing the curriculum content.

REFERENCE SHEET V-4
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SELECTED READING V-1

TRAINING AIDS*

by
Louis S. Goodman

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*From Training and Development Handbook, edited by Robert L. Craig and Lester R. Bittel. Copyright 1967 by McGraw-Hill, Inc. Used with permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company.

TRAINING AIDS

The training director must concern himself as much with the people to be trained as with the program to be presented. After the training objectives have been carefully spelled out, and the characteristics of the trainees assessed, only then can ways of reaching these goals be properly determined. These ways comprise the content and methods of the training program.

Method, then, is the bridge that carries content to the individual in a meaningful, assimilative manner. Methods of one type or another can be described as media of communication, or means to an end (objective). The discerning choice and skillful use of media as effective tools and techniques provide a significant ingredient to the success of any training program.

The gap between a *training* and a *learning* program is frequently wide because of the lack of a suitable bridging, or, if you will, media of communication. Media provide the ways and means of learning through appropriate *sensory* experience. Looking, listening, smelling, tasting, touching, and manipulating are prime, firsthand, impressive learning factors. When properly used, such experience can stamp realism and meaning into a training program.

Where raw, sensory experience cannot be employed for learning purposes because of practical considerations, as is frequently the case in many on-the-job situations, the program developer or trainer must communicate through contrived, reconstructed, or simulated means. These tools of the trade are commonly lumped together as training aids. It should be pointed out here that the raw, experiential resources of learning are much more difficult to program, but are potentially more effective than substituted media in many situations.

The training director must become knowledgeable in methods and media, particularly concerning their inherent and sometimes unique qualities. Media of communication range from the most concrete experience, as in the case of actual, productive work, to the most abstract representation of experience, as in printed or spoken words. Between these extremes, of course, lies a vast storehouse of training resources in the form of methods and aids.

Figure 1 showing various media of communication on a relative scale of concrete-to-abstract experience, depicts the range of tools and techniques available in training.

The broad array of media and methods of communication for use in the training-learning process calls for consummate understanding

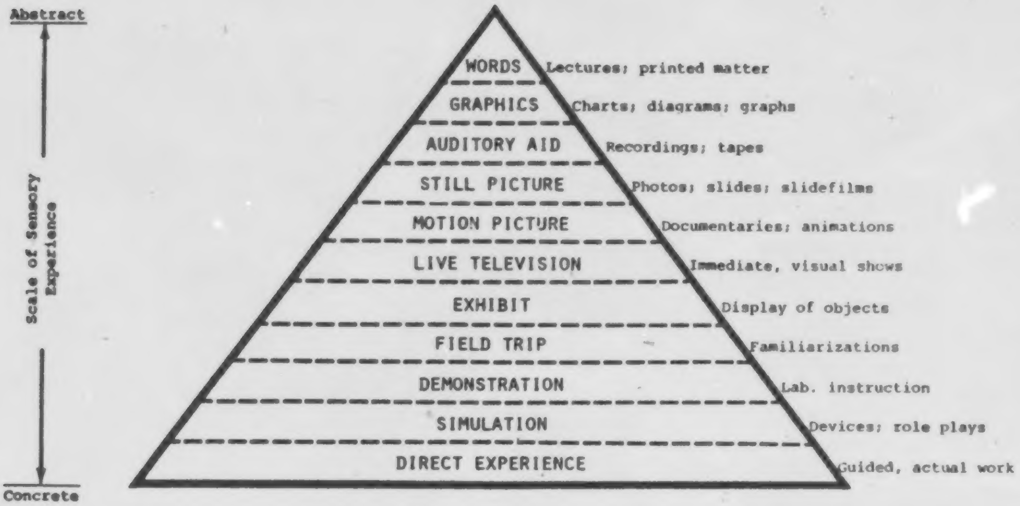
Abstract
Scale of Sensory Experience
Concrete
WORDS
Lectures; printed matter
GRAPHICS
Charts; diagrams; graphs
AUDITORY AID
Recordings; tapes
STILL PICTURE
Photos; slides; slidefilms
MOTION PICTURE
Documentaries; animations
LIVE TELEVISION
Immediate, visual shows
EXHIBIT
Display of objects
FIELD TRIP
Familiarizations
DEMONSTRATION
Lab. instruction
SIMULATION
Devices; role plays
DIRECT EXPERIENCE
Guided, actual work

FIG. 1. Media of communication.*

and a variety of skills. However, the training director or program-developer must have an awareness of the range of training resources. By infusing the training program with media appropriate to both trainees and content objectives, the ordinary, verbose classroom session, for example, can be transformed into a vital, stimulating experience leading to real learning; while in the absence of more concrete tools and techniques, the use of mere words, abstract terms, bare sentences, whether spoken or written, can have the deleterious result of providing little meaning or of being totally misconstrued by the learner in need of more tangible ways of understanding.

Therefore, to design a training program that can take advantage of more concrete resources, as these may be needed, takes considerably more than technical subject-matter competence. It demands an ability to program media, if training objectives are to be reached.

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*Adapted from author's doctoral dissertation, "The Principles, Origin and Early Development of Educational Realism." Boston University, 1942, 278 pp. Cf. author's article, "Training Comes to Its Senses," *Journal of the ASTD*, June, 1959.

SELECTION OF MEDIA

There are several criteria in choosing appropriate media and methods for a training program:

1. *Who*. Determine the *characteristics* of the group to be trained. Provide for individual differences. Consider the capabilities of the program presentors (they may need some special training on techniques).

2. *Why*. Establish the program's *objectives*, both from the learner and corporate standpoints. Which tool, technique, or combination of media will afford the greatest opportunity of reaching program objectives within budgeted limits.

3. *What*. Organize the *content* of the program in relation to the objectives. Bear in mind that media can sometimes be considered as content, such as a motion picture or direct experience.

4. *Where*. Decide on the *location* best suited to the objective of each part of the program. The classroom may not be the best place to conduct the entire training program. Examine compromise solutions to overcome common restrictions in time, travel, and cost.

5. *How*. Plan the program's *implementation* as completely as possible in advance. Proper use of the various media will require administrative attention to the scheduling of resources; the preparation, purchase, and distribution of training aids; and the setting up of suitable facilities and arrangements.

6. *When*. Provide for *media* to conform with all known elements in the training situation. Selection must be based on evaluation of factors indicated in the previous items.

The professional training man is ever mindful of these cardinal principles as he goes about the business of setting up his training program. He maintains his perspective on the full range of tools and techniques without a prejudice for or against any of them. He bases his judgment upon which media will accomplish the training tasks most economically and effectively. He provides the necessary mix in his selection to lend interest, pacing, and satisfaction while, at the same time, reaching the program's objectives. The skilled trainer plans well in advance, knowing that effective selection and use of training media bear a direct relationship to available "lead time." And finally, he retains a balanced view of costs, as between the ineffective, inefficient, useless exercise of just going through the motions of training, versus the purposeful programming of learning experiences to gain for the trainee a new standard of job performance.

TRAINING THROUGH DIRECT EXPERIENCE

2

Description

Direct, firsthand experience, mentioned earlier as the most concrete of all training media, can be a very powerful learning method when properly programmed. It involves the whole trainee, his physical senses as well as his mind, giving him immediate, sensory contact with the actual job environment. Direct experience incorporates the concept of "learning by doing" and activities associated with on-the-job training. The idea is among the oldest forms of teaching, and the pattern is still very much with us.

Direct experience can be a most stimulating, satisfying way to learn, but under certain conditions it can turn out to be very frustrating. The difference between these two effects is worthy of careful consideration by every organization using experience as the best teacher.

Advantages

What are its values? The clues to using the technique of direct experience in a program of training lie in its relationship to reality (actuality), its requirement for programming (guidance), and its culmination in an end product (result). Actual experience implies that the learner will get involved, that he will *participate* in a normal work task or subtask. This can result in true learning, provided that the purpose is clear to the trainee, and guidance in work performance is furnished.

Another positive characteristic is that this type of learning is unusually motivational. The technique can be programmed by the training staff or in association with line management for use in a variety of on-the-job situations. It lends itself very well to coaching as a realistic means of accomplishing certain training assignments.

Limitations

Despite obvious advantages, efficient handling of direct experience as a training technique is quite difficult. Oftentimes it becomes more expensive, both in time and money, than the more indirect methods of training. There is frequently a tendency to confuse osmotic exposure with forthright training, and in such cases it is not unusual to find misjudgment of the trainee's ability. Use of the direct technique can be disruptive to normal work procedures, thus reducing the productivity of the regular work force. Another detrimental feature sometimes encountered is the potential jurisdictional dispute arising from differences between line management and staff training in handling administrative and functional details of the trainee's program.

Application

The opportunity to employ direct experience as a training technique is present in many kinds of training situations. The following guidelines take into account some key considerations in applying this method:

1. Program the technique in relation to the learning objectives.

2. Develop a written plan to assure that these outcomes are achieved, making certain that the work supervisor (and coach) as well as the trainee himself understands both the purpose and the means.

3. Request the trainee to log any information or question that is relevant to his learning task. This will serve as an excellent feedback device for follow-up, clarification, and review.

4. Consider the establishment of a "learning laboratory" in those work situations where training results can be expected to be good. Be selective in people and places.

5. Blend theory with practice by providing for smooth transition between classroom and job through directed experience for the trainee.

To try out this technique, the training director or program developer may want to review one of his training programs and, in light of its specific objectives, ascertain the efficacy of using *direct experience*.

MEDIA OF INDIRECT EXPERIENCE

The media of *simulation*, *demonstration*, the *field trip*, and the *exhibit* are useful training techniques devised to provide indirect learning experiences. Classified on our scale as less concrete experience, they afford the learner sensory contact with a subject through a contrived rather than the actual situation.

The program developer, by using one or another of these methods, can modify or control the real-life situation to suit his training goal. He can reorganize, rearrange, or reduce reality in order to stress certain features. He can present or represent a slice of reality.

The setting for study can be the conventional training classroom, as in a demonstration of objects shown out of context to their normal environment. Perhaps more frequently, however, observation and study must be done at an outside site, as in the use of a field trip or mock-up. Where the technique calls for performance, as in a simulation exercise, limitations are placed upon the learning situation, the activity being only a substitute and not the real thing, and the learner is delayed in the actual performance of the task.

Simulation

This is most often a plan or device that incorporates certain characteristics of direct experience while avoiding some of its disadvantages for training. The closer the relationship between the contrived experience and the real job, the greater the chance of transfer. But differences between simulation and actuality should be made clear to the trainee. The simulation exercise should provide knowledge of results, preferably in some form approximating the job situation. Proper actions should be reinforced whenever possible.

The two principal types of simulation exercises used in training take the form of operational *gaming* and *mock-ups*. Business games have been applied to manager development and are descendants of the war games used in training military staff personnel. In both cases, the plan includes a set of ground rules resembling actual conditions and providing the structure for making decisions. The decision makers (players) are presented with the ground rules resembling actual conditions and providing the structure for making decisions. The decision makers (players) are presented with these ground rules, basic information about their organization, and its operating framework. Each player assumes a functional role, serving as a team member to plan, direct, and control the operation as he might do in an actual, competitive situation. Business games are available for use with or without the aid of data-processing equipment.

The mock-up or simulator is a workable device which bears a functional relationship to reality. Many were developed during World War II for the Army and the Navy, and were particularly effective in aircraft gunnery training. Today, important users of this method are the airlines, to train pilots on the ground in flight simulators. There are numerous other uses for mock-ups in industry and government where on-the-job training would be too dangerous, too expensive, or altogether too inefficient.

Sometimes a mock-up makes a task simpler to understand than having access to the real situation or thing. Where equipment or systems contain elements too small, too large, or too spread out to be studied as they are, these elements can be represented in smaller- or larger-scale reproductions, and in this way gain better training emphasis. Also, the mock-up can provide practice for the development of motor skills as well as understandings. In special situations, such as in the handling of military equipment, these devices have been built to elaborate, complicated specifications in order to come as close as possible to actual job conditions. Highly sophisticated training devices of this type are obviously quite expensive. This cost, however, must be measured against the numbers to be trained, duration of the training period, lead time available, and the importance of this training to the total project.

Demonstration

Trainers use the demonstration technique to show how something works or gets done. Normally, the learner's role is to *observe* rather than to participate directly. The demonstration is intended to illustrate or clarify an idea, process, reaction, or relationship. It succeeds as a training medium only insofar as it helps to get across or communicate meaning.

The demonstration takes on many patterns. It may incorporate other media shown on the "scale of experience." One example is the use of a cutaway model to help explain an engine's operation. Another is the showing of different hand positions in illustrating hand skills, manipulative operations, or man-machine relationships. Demonstration frequently takes the form of a laboratory experiment, the instructor serving as demonstrator and the learners as observers. A similar technique is used in sales training, where a demonstration is employed in making an effective sales presentation to show advantageous properties of a product.

The technique of demonstrating effectively takes advantage of a strong sense of realism while getting each key point across to the learner. This requires full awareness by the demonstrator of the learner's ability to comprehend what he is observing. There is room for showmanship since the technique, properly handled, can create and sustain attention, as well as stimulate further learning. In effect, when carefully prepared and skillfully conducted, the demonstration can be a dramatic learning experience.

To accomplish this takes planning plus practice in the skills needed to present an effective training demonstration. It must relate to the subject under study and, more particularly, to its objective. It should not be made more elaborate than it need be to attain the training objective. It should be interesting and short enough not to be dull. The demonstration must be tested to ascertain if all parts work and if the audience will be able to hear and see all that goes on. It must be performed by a well-qualified individual capable of explaining the functional relationships involved without becoming overly technical.

The learner, too, must be prepared so that the situation being demonstrated becomes meaningful to him. He must be motivated to learn, to become curious, to study relationships. The demonstrator or trainer must guide the learner by stimulating his observation, by drawing comparisons, and by clearly identifying significant relationships so that the learner can draw appropriate conclusions. To make sure that he does calls for follow-up activities and an evaluation of the learning outcomes. Such evaluative measurement will also serve to determine how effective the use of the demonstration was as a medium of communication.

As with each of the other media, advantages are offset to a degree by limitations. The demonstration requires considerable finesse as a training technique, particularly its application to the development of mental concepts and attitudes (as against training for physical or manual skills). Its effective use is time-consuming in its preparation and presentation phases. Is the resultant learning sufficiently worthwhile? Or is there another, a better technique to call into play in the training design? These are questions for the training director as he appraises the media to be found in his training tool kit in relation to the training problem at hand.

Field Trip

Although it is a very valuable training technique, the field trip is also one of the most overlooked. When well organized, it holds many advantages for learning. Improperly handled, the field trip is a waste of effort, time, and money.

The field trip makes use of the environment as a learning laboratory, and can best be described as a planned visit to a place away from the normal training room for specific study. Because it provides realism, the trip can be integrated into a training program to afford the deeper, more meaningful understandings so vital to the study of more abstract training topics. It provides the learner with firsthand experiences with situations, things, and operations, showing him relationships altogether not possible within the confines of a training room.

There are other advantages of the field trip for the learner. Besides providing him with firsthand information that is concrete and real, it can increase his appreciation and improve his attitude toward a job or situation. It may also arouse his interest in training. And for the program planner, the technique of the field trip has subsidiary values, such as being comparatively available and frequently less expensive than other media, and providing a more complete source of raw data than print or lecture alone. To the instructor, the field trip can help considerably as a stimulating introduction, in summarizing a topic, or as a means of verifying a point or subject in which opportunity for concrete experience has been limited.

In training, there are several types of field trips. They may vary in time, from those taking less than an hour, such as visiting an adjoining part of an office, plant, or nearby installation, to long, extensive trips to domestic or foreign sites consuming several weeks or months. The field trip can be programmed for use by an individual or by a group.

The resourceful training director avoids the idea that all training can best be done in a training room, around a conference table, or in any one special place. He recognizes that to be most effective, his training programs must necessarily transfer classroom problems into real-life situations. He knows the intrinsic value of the field trip in providing reality to an operation and tries to make the most of the technique in meeting his training objectives.

The basic structure of the field trip as a training technique can be divided into three parts: what to do before, during, and after. Preliminary preparation before the visit is essential in any plan. The site should be well known to the planner. Arrangements must be worked out for the notification of site personnel, transportation where required, finances, schedules, food, and accommodations. Added to these mechanics of the plan is the need for a clear statement of the objective(s) to be accomplished and advance discussion of questions and points to be observed for the learner.

Significant observations made during the visit should be noted by the learner, who may also want to take some photographs, samples, and specimens. Prepared questions must have answers. Time must be properly allocated to cover features in the plan.

After the trip, the follow-up should be fitted squarely into the training objective. If the main purpose was to gather specific information, this should be thoroughly discussed, or a test given; if, on the other hand, the intent was to develop a keener appreciation of a task, job, or condition, the follow-up discussion might assume the format of a problem-solving discussion. In every case, to profit from the observations made on a field trip, there must be a framework into which new data and insights can fit.

Exhibit

There are times when, for one reason or another, the sensory experiences must be confined to a conventional training room or area and cannot be obtained from the normal environment. Under these circumstances, it becomes opportune to provide substitutes or contrivances for the real thing as an aid in learning. Reality is brought to the learners, so to speak, in rearranged form to fit training requirements.

Such substitutes are exhibit media, commonly known as "objects" (the things themselves), "specimens" (typical parts of things), and "models" (replicas adapted to reasonable dimensions). The program developer uses these media to achieve a desired level of realism as a base for learning.

An exhibit, then, is an organized display of three-dimensional materials designed to instruct the observer in a given topic. Objects too large to be brought into a training room can be represented by a model. There are several types for consideration: exact-replica, reduced-scale, enlarged-scale, cutaway, exploded, and working models. If the purpose is to teach a precise function, then exactness will be required in the model used. If, however, only the appreciation of a concept is needed, detail in the model becomes less necessary.

Exhibit material, like other media, should be used especially when it can make a unique contribution to training. Its three-dimensional quality provides depth and substance and may, in addition, appeal to the senses of hearing, smelling, and tasting. These can be very relevant in certain learning situations. By permitting examination and handling, these media can show relationships, design characteristics, and shapes in an extremely effective way.

Their value in training is further enhanced by the fact that models are substitutes for originals that are unobtainable, expensive, fragile, minute, massive, dangerous, or perishable. They adapt readily to various training plans, are of intrinsic interest, stimulating--often to the point of fascination--closely observable, and frequently easier to obtain than other aids.

Effectiveness in making full training use of exhibit materials follows many of the same principles used in good advertising display. These include (1) keeping the objective in mind, (2) using collateral materials along with the key object or model, (3) making sure that the exhibit can be seen by all, (4) correcting any misconceptions in size due to scale differences, and (5) letting the observers participate where possible.

An appropriate object, specimen, or model, either selected or made, can add vitality to the learning situation. Through these media, training takes on a third dimension: for instance, showing a new product line, emphasizing waste in production, pointing up servicemen's errors on company equipment, and introducing an office or manufacturing layout to flow chart a new procedure. The resource of exhibit materials affords challenging opportunities to the training director in the training design of many types of programs.

Television

There are at least three ways in which the medium of television can make a worthwhile contribution to a training program or system:

1. TV programs produced for public consumption but applicable to an organization's information, education, or training objectives.

2. Closed-circuit television planned and produced expressly for training purposes.

3. TV kinescope recordings (16mm sound film) or videotape recordings of useful programs previously televised, now available for rebroadcast (or for regular motion-picture projection).

The question is: How much training can be accomplished through television? The scattered uses of the medium for this purpose at this time would seem to indicate that training directors are having difficulty accommodating television to their requirements. The use of commercial TV programs (item 1, above) is almost impossible in a large number of organizations because of the conflict between broadcast times and work schedules as well as the lack of viewing facilities in work environments and the infrequent relevance of TV programs to organizational training objectives. However, in times of local, regional, or national crisis, television has played an outstanding, informative role. Should the training director be prepared to share in this communication responsibility?

TV enables the instantaneous transfer of actions perceived by eye and ear from one place to another. This ability to combine sight, sound, and immediacy in bringing outside activities right into a training facility is the chief inherent value of live television.

Closed-circuit television (item 2, above) can be a real asset to training. This communication medium connects various buildings in an installation (or rooms in one building) by coaxial cable. TV programs can be channeled to any part of this system, but not broadcast over the air. Therefore, no license is required. A TV facility of this type can help materially in alleviating the shortage of instructors, specialists, or particular equipment or facilities. Closed-circuit TV may also be used to show a film simultaneously in several locations.

Except in those cases where a stringent training problem exists, in which the unique features of TV training are essential, the uses of closed-circuit TV programming are still small. Production techniques for such training programs are specialized, and a special telephonic or microwave transmission is required. Occasionally, a commercial or educational station will broadcast an internal program for an organization, industry, or business enterprise in cases where more general audience interest exists. Successful instances of effective use of closed-circuit TV for training have centered around job training skills, showing techniques in location which would be difficult to observe by other means. However, as far as becoming a common instructional aid is concerned, TV is still in its infancy.

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In one type of application, where it resembles the sound motion picture, television is finding increasing uses in training. This application is the kinescope recording, or videotape (item 3, above), which is becoming increasingly available. The "instant playback" feature of recently introduced equipment makes video tape recordings a dynamic demonstration tool. Film libraries now stock kinescopes which can be borrowed or rented on the same basis as 16mm films. For all practical purposes, the techniques of using kinescopes effectively are similar to those for motion pictures.

The Motion Picture

Among the media of communication, a very close relative of television is the motion picture. One important difference for training, however, is that films can be used when, and as often as, needed without adhering to a fixed broadcast schedule. Despite its considerable advantages as a training tool, the motion picture has not yet achieved its full potential.

The film has been heralded as perhaps the greatest advance in communication media since printing. It is a universal language, capable of speaking directly to many people who do not customarily get ideas from print. Here are some things the film can do: it can present factual information, motivate learning, clarify a job skill, demonstrate action, dramatize an event, stimulate the emotions, help form an attitude, pose a problem, raise an issue, correlate isolated data into concepts, extend the range of the human eye, or summarize a situation. A great many training objectives can profitably use one or more of these routes to attainment.

Several types of films are used in training programs, including: informational, instructional, documentary, fictional, technical-scientific, episodic-provocative, and animated. Of the three standard film widths--35mm, 16mm, and 8mm--the 16mm film is by far the most widely used. Other physical differences among films relate to whether they are sound or silent, color or black-and-white, and what their mode of packaging is--whether it is continuous loop or cartridge, or the common standard reel sizes.

When the training program is designed, consideration should be given to the relative advantages of the film medium in achieving the objective. Much research over the years has indicated that learning can be expedited through films for both the rate and amount of learning in a given period, and in the amount retained over a more extended period, as compared with other techniques, particularly straight lectures. These studies, made at various educational levels for different subjects, include adult applications in the military and industrial fields.

There are other advantages in using films which may be consistent with the training plan's objective. They provide an effective means of communicating with large, widely separated groups, possibly even those with language barriers, by affording each of them a common sensory experience. By combining sight and sound in an interrelated way, expressing ideas through animated techniques that do not exist in concrete form, providing color for more realistic and vivid impressions, and permitting vicarious identification with characters in the film, this medium furnishes the training director and his program developers with a broad base of opportunity.

Once the value of films in training is acknowledged, there remain certain difficulties impeding their use. Selecting the best available film for the training task is not easy. It does take time to find, preview, secure, and return the borrowed film to its source. Making arrangements for proper projection of the film can be cumbersome. Then, too, the motion picture selected is apt to provide a pat answer to a complicated problem. However, such difficulties and weaknesses in film use can be minimized by those who have become skillful in well-established film techniques.

No one technique should be applied to using films in training. It will depend upon the type of film and the reason for showing it. The meaningfulness of films in relation to learning problems can be increased in various ways. Providing opportunities for discussion, the application of principles, practice, repetition, as well as editing out and reviewing film clips of a motion picture are just a few of these ways.

Most leaders or instructors should have a plan, although in certain learning situations, a few experienced people will object to an exact procedure. Nevertheless, for the former, the 4-P plan is effective and may be used as a guide. It includes (1) preparation, (2) presentation, (3) participation, and (4) practice.

Preparation, in part, means using the film where it fits best, logically or psychologically, in the training program. It might be useful near the beginning as a motivator, or later to add important information, help form an attitude, or develop a skill. It may serve as a summary. Sometimes the same film is used to serve all three functions. Another phase of the preparation involves previewing the film, noting its content in relation to the training objective and to other parts of the program. The training facility must be readied, including proper placement of the projection system, and seating, lighting, and ventilating arrangements. Finally, and of extreme importance, is preparing the learners. They must know in advance why the film will be shown, what to look for in it, and how it relates to preceding and following facets of their training program.

Presentation of the film will vary, the particular technique depending again on the objective. It may be necessary to show a film several times, especially in cases where film content is condensed and detailed study required. This is not an uncommon situation. Film clips may be one solution. Another variable is film showing in sound. The instructor may elect to narrate all or part of a film himself by turning off the sound. This is particularly effective in adapting visual content to a learning objective. After an initial run-through, the instructor may want to stop the film at a given point for group discussion. He may want to interrupt in this way several times during a presentation. Flexibility in projection equipment should include those features and accessories that permit a wide range of utilization techniques. Needless to say, the equipment must be kept in good working order to prevent serious disruptions to the training program.

Participation by the learners takes on many forms. Group response may be a discussion of key points or questions previously raised. In using the "single concept" film, increasingly popular with the advent of 8mm cartridge load projectors, the learner may be asked to apply the new idea to an old, familiar situation either orally or in writing. With the continuous, repetitive loop film technique, the individual trainee replies directly to the situation depicted in the film. Where the film becomes an integrated part of a mock-up, obviously the direct response may determine the consequences of the learner's overt action. Whatever the technique, active participation should be built into the method of film use whenever possible. In this way, film presentations will allow little opportunity for so-called passive learning.

Practice, as related to the function of films in training, involves the application of the principles, information, ideas, actions, or processes brought out through film techniques. It is a follow-up for the film, providing the learner with the necessary clarification to his understanding or performance of a task. Sometimes it is purely repetitive, as in developing a motor skill. At other times, practice consists of relating equipment shown in a film to actual hardware at the site of training. Or it may take the form of a demonstration or role play. Practice following film use normally leads to final review, examination or performance check-out. It helps to consummate the learning task, in keeping with the objective of the training program.

The procedure just described will help in reducing current abuses in the use of films in training. The film is but a tool, not the craftsman, and it should be evaluated as such. In addition to the relevance of its content, the film's technical quality in photography, sound, writing, direction, and acting should be at least good enough not to interfere with its message.

In considering the production of a custom-made film for training purposes, factors of use should play a significant part. What are the major criteria on which a decision can be made?

1. Does the situation to be depicted warrant the use of film, or can another, less expensive medium achieve the desired result?

2. Will the training program of which the film is a part be used by enough people to justify the production cost?

3. Is there enough lead time available to produce the film?

After the decision is made to produce a film, the training director must choose a competent film producer (unless in-house services exist). For budget purposes, the cost of a commercially produced sound motion picture can be reckoned at about $1,000 per running minute. To serve as liaison, a training staff member should be assigned to the film producer. His assistance can be most helpful in assuring technical accuracy and proper training fit of the film. Leave other aspects of the film to the producer's creative staff.

Studies on film instruction, particularly those done by the Instructional Film Research Program for the U.S. Navy Training Devices Center, provide guidelines to training-film production which can increase a film's effectiveness. Among many other significant points, these studies suggest the need for planning the film from the learner's viewpoint, not the expert's; slowing down the rate of development in the film content, not overpacking the information contained; coordinating greater learner-participation opportunities; and developing collateral aids, such as workbooks, special study assignments, and other media of instruction. Most recent developments in film production and use have brought to training the single-concept film, sequence repetition loops, film clips, and 8mm sound cartridge presentations.

Source information on films available for purchase, rent, or free loan, can be found in:

1. *Educators Guide to Free Films*, Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin.
2. *Industrial Film Bibliography*, National Metal Trades Association, Chicago.
3. *U.S. Government Films*, Norwood Films, Washington, D. C.
4. Most state universities and larger colleges.
5. Public libraries, some of which now loan films, while most can help with above and other source references.

Judged altogether, the motion picture, in the hands of a talented trainer, can be a dynamic, vital, and effective tool.

Still Picture

When motion is not required in a visual aid to convey a concept, the use of one or more *still pictures* can frequently be of considerable help. The still picture lends itself to detailed, analytical study. The term refers to a group of visual materials made up of photographs, illustrations, transparencies, slidefilms, and slides.

These pictorial representations can portray things that might otherwise not be seen. They overcome the frequent obstructions of time and space. They help to create correct impressions by clarifying terms and giving face meanings to things. They assist comprehension, particularly by those with limited language facility. They can focus attention on a single idea, produce an emotional response, or create a mood. They can serve to motivate learning by arousing curiosity and interest in a subject.

Merely allowing trainees to look at pictures will rarely result in efficient learning. They must be led to look for relationships in the things they "see" in the picture. When a pictorial presentation is planned, each picture must have a point, or help to convey information in line with the training purpose. Unless it makes a certain definite contribution to the learning situation, the picture can have no place. This exacting criterion makes visualization through pictures a difficult training task to accomplish readily.

For this reason, in part, many training-program designers and trainers prefer to use a prepared *slidefilm*, consisting of a series of pictures printed on a strip of 35mm film, already arranged in fixed sequence. The slidefilm, variously called the "filmslide," "stripfilm," "stillfilm," or "filmstrip," capitalizes on the elimination of irrelevant, distracting motion by showing only pertinent visual data on each phase of a subject.

There are certain advantages to the slidefilm. It is compact; easy to handle and file; simple to project; comparatively inexpensive to make, buy, and use; flexible for presentation; and valuable for prolonged study. Its chief limitations are the fixed sequence of pictures, the difficulty of singling out one frame for projection, and room-darkening requirements (unless rear projection is used).

The *sound* slidefilm, commonly used in business and industry, has a synchronized recording on disk or tape. It is produced with an audible signal for (manual) frame changes or with an inaudible (automatic) signal. Basic techniques for using slidefilms in training are similar to those for using motion pictures. The training task must have well-defined objectives, problems and questions for consideration, cues for their answers, and provision for leading the group or individual into making valid generalizations.

Perhaps the most popular type of still picture in training is the *slide*. Usually, it is the 2-in. size, but the 2 1/4-in. and the 4-in. (lantern) slide are also common. Slides can be readily produced at an amateur or professional level, and can lend a true sense of reality and authenticity to the subject being learned. They have the primary advantage of flexibility in terms of changing the visual sequence of a presentation. When used in an illustrated lecture, slides permit the presenter to adapt his narration or discussion to fit the circumstances. They may also be projected handily and automatically, and their cost is very little. However, a major administrative problem in using slides for training is the need for classifying and housing them. The collection, if possible, should be standardized to one size to expedite handling, filing and selection.

Projection equipment for the various types of still pictures has seen considerable improvement and specialization over the years. The 2-in. slide projector, for example, is now an extremely versatile device, capable of holding 100 or more slides, changing and focusing remotely, and varying the image size. The opaque projector, capable of projecting flat pictures and objects, is still the workhorse among audio-visual equipment. The tachistoscope provides a shutter attachment permitting the operator to time flashes on a screen. An overhead projector is a particularly useful device in situations where the instructor should face a group while projecting images on a screen behind and above his desk. In certain situations, this instrument is displacing the blackboard for this very reason.

Auditory Aid

Learning by listening has always been an essential part of the training process. As such, auditory aids are of real assistance, even though they are relatively more abstract in terms of sensory experience. Although the audio category contains radio, public address systems, and many specialized sound devices, most commonly used in training are disk and tape recordings, especially the latter.

Recordings appeal to the ear in much the same way as pictures appeal to the eye. Both tend to reflect reality. Both enable the learner to repeat an original sensory experience. The trainer, for example, may stop a tape recording to ask a question, emphasize a point, or replay a whole section, for any reason. Through recording, the expert brings his special knowledge to bear, and doesn't have to be present himself to do so. These are important assets for training.

Tapes can be circulated and used like films, to carry a message or instruction to different locations, near and far. The tape recorder can be used to document the voices of key executives in an organization, as they express themselves on goals, problems, or matters of information to employees. It is a valuable tool for collecting data, transcribing conference talks and discussions, and for recording training sessions for later editing and use. Recordings can be made to dramatize incidents, cases, or special situations, and can be produced in conjunction with role-playing techniques, for later playback and analysis. Taping interviews with workers, managers, and others is a telling way of bringing firsthand information into a training session.

Many ready-made training courses, as used in language teaching, speech, and salesmanship, are developed on tape. The creative use of the tape recorder is an effective way of designing a number of self-development programs. Trainers may wish to place their examination questions on tape so that they need only monitor the test while trainees listen and answer. Tapes can serve trainees as an efficient means of reviewing a subject. When recorded to synchronize with visuals, such as a slide-set or a slidefilm, the tape can become a continually useful part of a planned presentation.

To take full advantage of audio experiences in a training situation calls for (1) imaginative thinking on possible applications, (2) understanding and skill in the motivational aspects of learning, (3) establishing a suitable listening environment, (4) ability in organizing and producing suitable recordings, and (5) coordinating the necessary involvement and follow-up activities for the learners. Fortunately, the tape recorder itself is simple to operate for both recording and playback use. Although four speeds are currently available on a wide variety of models, 3 3/4 inches per second (ips) or 7 1/4 ips are most commonly used for training. When making a recording, the recorded image should be lifelike and have "presence." This requires good equipment, proper microphone placement, suitable room acoustics, and careful adjustment of recording levels for tone and volume.

Tapes of significance should be cataloged and stored for easy reference and further use. Tape lends itself readily to editing, so that segments can be spliced together to fit special training needs. While one is listening, the tape recorder can be stopped at any point, and can be reversed for replay as necessary. Learning by listening, with the help of auditory aids, has the potential for becoming an important and worthy part of the training-learning process.

Despite certain drawbacks, the recorder-playback, in the hands of talented, creative training people, offers much to the enlightened training director and his staff in a wide variety of training situations. The electro-writer is a device capable of adding visuals to a telephone lecture when attached to a data set line. It can transmit handwriting and sketches over many miles of telephone lines. The transmitted visual can be projected on a screen in conjunction with the telephone talk.

Graphics

The training task sometimes demands materials that can communicate ideas and facts concisely, clearly, and logically, yet impressively. In this situation it is quite likely that the trainer will call upon graphics, which are a combination of drawings, words, numbers, and pictures. Designed in two dimensions, graphic materials are comparatively abstract, but have the ability to convey more in less time by compressing factual relationships in concepts. Actually, graphic materials fall into two broad classifications: (1) the apparatus, such as blackboards; projector easel pads; bulletin, flannel, and magnetic boards; and (2) the aids, including charts, graphs, diagrams, illustrations, cartoons, and posters.

The use of graphics offers several advantages, particularly in the presentation phase of a training program. These media will serve admirably in support of mere words when interest must be aroused, attention attracted, directions given, inspiration provided, trends emphasized, comparisons made, statistics interpreted, processes outlined, or functions related. The use of graphic symbols brings enormous areas of knowledge within the confined compass of man's vision. This distillation of experience, represented in graphic form, reduces mass data to conventionalized visual symbols--an abstract mode of communication. Learners with below-average verbal proficiency will ordinarily need more graphic demonstration than those with superior verbal skills. The graphic approach presents a vivid mental image that helps in analyzing, interpreting, and comparing relationships of data. Other significant benefits are the comparative ease in preparation, the low cost, and the flexibility of use in either printed form for individual study or projectible form in an opaque or overhead projector for group use.

The blackboard (chalkboard) is one of the oldest and most time-tested of all aids to presentation, instruction, and conceptualization. Despite its honored place, it is also one of the most abused tools of the trade. A considerable number of blackboard users violate one or more of these rules:

1. Move away from what you write or print.
2. Talk to the group, not the board.
3. Keep blackboard work legible.
4. Favor the upper rather than the lower section of the board.
5. Prepare complex drawings in advance but keep them covered until the appropriate time.
6. Use legible colored chalk for easy data differentiation.
7. Develop complex points step by step.
8. Sectionalize the board and draw relationships diagrammatically.
9. Use chalk-drawing tools if needed.
10. Keep the blackboard clean.

The easel pad is now widely used as a flip chart, particularly where a blackboard is not available. Because its size is comparatively smaller, and data exposure is normally limited to one panel at a time, it serves to concentrate attention on the orderly sequencing of points. Most often, these points have been prepared in advance, and therefore have the added advantage of serving as an outline for both speaker and audience during the presentation. Many of the conditions for effective use follow suggestions already listed as good practices for blackboard users.

Flannel boards (and much of this is true of magnetic boards) are valuable in providing a way to build up points in a presentation. The flannel material on the board has an adhesive quality to which cardboard (or other light materials) sticks when it has a backing of floktite or sandpaper. The floktite-backed cards are placed on a table near the flannel board at the proper time. Flannel board presentation data must be pointed and their position in relation to other posted material should bear significance.

Charts, graphs, diagrams, illustrations, cartoons, and posters comprise the other part of the graphics category. Each of these media has a similar role to play in getting ideas across; and for this reason, these terms tend to overlap one another in definition and use. All of them are symbolic, lie in the more abstract range of the concrete-abstract scale, and therefore require a background of knowledge sufficient for interpretation.

The chart represents information in some visual, orderly, arranged form which might otherwise be very difficult to explain in words alone. It is especially useful in condensing data to a lucid, more readily remembered format. The graph is an accurate representation of measurable data, and its function is to present them in a less confusing, more interesting way. Various kinds are in use, including pictorial (pictograph), bar, circular, and line graphs, each helpful in drawing comparisons between factors and data, such as quantity, development, function, and relationships. A diagram is a line drawing made to explain the interrelationships between facts or functions. Often the abstraction being discussed cannot be readily understood without a diagram, which can range in style from the simple sketch to an intricate schematic one.

An illustration, in this sense, is a drawing intended to elucidate a point or show an example. The cartoon is a freehand interpretation of a situation using symbolization and exaggeration to carry a message or point of view boldly and laconically. Especially effective as a visual device, it commands attention and is provocative. For similar reasons, the poster can be a telling medium, making its point through picture or drawing. It usually calls for some type of action as well.

Words

It goes without saying that without verbal communication, the training task becomes most difficult. Yet words in themselves frequently lack the power to convey adequate meaning. Much in training, however, is camouflaged in verbiage, and programs of all kinds proceed on this highly abstract plane.

No longer need the training director or program designer be so heavily dependent upon, or limit himself so narrowly (and dangerously) to the printed manual or the straight classroom lecture. With modern media and methods of communication and instruction, everyone engaged in training is faced with the challenge of arranging meaningful learning experiences in a manner that will assure more expeditious and more economical training; for through these media the ordinary trainer or lecturer can, with comparatively little coaching, reach heights in training efficiency that formerly were possible only by highly talented, well-experienced professionals.

This can be achieved in any training organization if full consideration is given to the fundamental role of sensory experiences in the learning process. In all forms of training, *ends* can never be achieved without careful consideration of the *means* or *method*.

Posttraining performance is probably as good a measure as we have for evaluating these media resources when properly used for learning and making behavioral changes. On this score, there is considerable evidence to indicate the worthiness of continuous examination, experimental use, and constant evaluation.

SELECTED READING V-2

TRAINING AIDS: USE AND PREPARATION

TRAINING AIDS: USE AND PREPARATION

Training aids convey information and ideas to trainees by appealing to their senses of sound, sight, and touch. Properly utilized training aids can greatly facilitate the learning process. Because they appeal to several senses, they help trainees comprehend the subject matter more effectively.

In general, training should be designed to help trainees perform more effectively on the job; the selection of training aids should be based on this principle.

It is important to remember the following when selecting and utilizing training aids:

1. *Analyze the content* area to determine what aspects of it may be presented more effectively with use of a training aid.
2. *Coordinate* the use of the training aid with the total presentation of the subject.
3. *Rehearse* the presentation. Even though you may feel "silly" at the time, you'll be glad that you "practiced" during the actual presentation.
4. *Prepare the equipment* so that it will be ready for use *before* it is needed. (A chalk board with no chalk is like a car with no gas.)
5. The training aid is *not a crutch*--it is to facilitate training/learning. It is not a substitute for training.

USE OF A FLIP CHART

When using a flip chart (sometimes called newsprint) to record group comments, it is important to:

- *Talk to the group* as you write. Try to angle the equipment so that your back will be to the group as little as possible.
- Periodically, *move away* from what has been written or drawn so that the entire group can see the chart.
- When appropriate, *prepare* as much of the chart as possible in advance.

- *Develop complex points*, step by step. Don't try to write everything that is said.

- Insure that there is *plenty of paper* and an ample supply of felt tip pens.

- *Write legibly.* If you can't, print. If you can't do that legibly either, a second person could do the writing.

USE OF A CHALK BOARD

When using a chalk board, the same "rules of thumb" apply as for the use of the flip chart. The main difference is that an ample supply of chalk and a *good* eraser are essential. The greatest disadvantage in using a chalk board is the most obvious, it's messy!

USE OF CHARTS AND/OR DIAGRAMS

A chart or diagram is often used as a visual aid to reinforce verbal explanations. The supervisor/trainer should refrain from displaying a chart until he wishes to create maximum interest. Charts/diagrams should be kept simple, eye-catching, and easy to read. Other charts/diagrams relevant to the total training session may be displayed throughout the session so that the trainees can refer to them from time to time.

USE OF AN OVERHEAD PROJECTOR

The overhead projector is one of the most commonly used training aids. It is particularly useful for a flexible presentation in which the comments may vary considerably in length, depending upon the responses from the group or in a presentation that must be kept flexible in sequence.

When using the overhead projector, it is very important to:

1. *Completely familiarize* yourself with the equipment. (It is very expensive.)

2. *Check the projector* to insure that it is working properly *before* you plan to use it in actual training. (An extra bulb on hand helps.)

3. Place the screen so that it is *visible to all members* of the group and that the projector *and* you are out of the line of vision of the screen.

(NOTE: This is a great opportunity for the supervisor/trainer to move around among the group and get out from behind the desk.)

4. If the screen is not available, is inadequate, or is in the way of the rest of the training, a *good wall will serve the purpose.*

5. The message on transparencies for overhead projectors should be simply stated, quickly understood, and easily read.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHOOSING TRAINING ACTIVITIES AND AIDS*

Techniques are tools -- no one method or aid serves all purposes. Like clothing, they must fit if they are to be comfortable when used, and they must be adjusted and combined in new ways for each occasion. Those chosen should fit the purpose of the training, strenghten feelings of fellowship and the motivation to master knowledge and skills, and allay anxious feelings of dread or confusion. Know your students and their learning needs and objectives, the time and resources available. Plan ways to emphasize the essentials, to change the pace, to contrast personalities, voices and points of view, and to involve the participants individually and actively in the process of teaching/learning. Help them stretch, to reach beyond their grasp.

WHEN TRAINING SHOULD:	TRY:
Attract attention, stimulate interest	Exhibit or display with take-away bibliography or "where to write." Interest-catching visuals, such as arrows, footprints, etc. Observation opportunity trip or tour, with guides, to see the real thing. Research assignments to be reported. Mention "coming attractions" at end of session. or agenda of related meetings.
Give a lot of information quickly	Lecture with audio/visual aids -- motion picture, panel, symposium, forum, etc. Written fact sheet, distributed and discussed. Use of specialists as consultants.
Develop a common knowledge, widen horizons and the information base for individual perception.	Reading assignments, ahead and between sessions; planned observation; lecture with take-home fact sheet, discussion for sharing experience. Circular response -- same

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*Adapted from Volunteers Today by Harriet H. Naylor, Associated Press, N.Y.

	questions answered by each participant without discussion.
Deepen concern, relate individual concerns to objectives.	Assignment to state what they hope to learn. Student questions fully discussed; problem-solving work groups; case studies; planned observations and analysis; writing assignments; research report; motion picture.
Perfect skills, give competence and confidence	Group projects -- filmstrips, flip charts, diagrams, etc., each one teach one. Demonstration by experts with practice by all; drill through games, etc.; experimentation, analysis and reporting.
Generate attitudes of conviction: "this we should do."	Opportunity for self-analysis -- "where am I"; free discussion; individual counseling; collaborative projects; analysis; group decision participation; individual testing alternatives. Model leadership, care in selection and briefing. Motion picture with discussion.
Stimulate new ways of work and release creativity	Free discussion to clarify values; work groups or individual assignments to define steps in application at home; use of administrators as consultants to communicate hopes of the organization; alert for delayed action evaluation report: after a lapse of time "what I have done because I had this training."

MODULE VI

MODULE VI: FACILITATION: PROCESSING LEARNING EXPERIENCES **TIME:** 3 HOURS 30 MINUTES

GOALS

- To understand what group experience has to offer individuals
- To understand communication that supports group and individual growth
- To understand what is needed beyond presenting information and facilitating experiential activities.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Write four key questions or design an activity that will help a group in processing new information or new skills
- Define EIAG
- Define processing
- Deliver and process an experiential learning piece.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET VI-1
QUIZ ON TYPES OF FEEDBACK

Directions:

1. Using the code in the box below, place the appropriate letter (or letters) in front of each item.

2. Check your answers with the key.

R (Reporting) = Giving the receiver factual data.
A (Assuming) = Telling what the facts mean to you.
L (Leveling) = Using "I" to tell the receiver how your assumptions made you feel without obligation to receiver to change.
C (Confronting) = Using "you" to communicate your judgment to the receiver.
G (Gross) = Giving the receiver unmanageable information.
D (Descriptive) = Same as Reporting.
E (Evaluative) = Making assumptions to tell a person what you think and expecting a behavior change.
P (Prescriptive) = Telling the receiver what to do or how to change.

Example:

R,A You spoke rapidly; I'm guessing you had a lot to say in just a short time.

________ 1. Your lips moved rapidly; your words come out very fast.

________ 2. You've got to speak more slowly so people will understand you.

________ 3. I noticed you were late for each of the three sessions yesterday.

________ 4. I found myself getting annoyed because you've been late to three sessions in a row, now.

________ 5. Your accent is really seductive, you know.

________ 6. I saw people yawning and looking out the window; I guess they were bored.

________ 7. Your voice was loud and clear--I heard everything you said.

________ 8. I saw you smiling when I messed up my presentation.

________ 9. When you told that last joke no one laughed.

________ 10. You really cut her down when you ignored her question.

________ 11. There is something about you that just turns me off.

Worksheet VI-1, Continued

________ 12. Those freaky clothes you wear turn me off.

________ 13. Those freaky clothes you wear turn me on.

________ 14. You should make an effort to participate more.

Worksheet VI-1, Continued

ANSWER KEY

R,D 1. Factual data with no judgment or interpretation.

C 2. Judgment directed at the receiver.

R,D, 3. See 1, above.

L,R,E 4. Giving personal feelings and factual reasons for them.

G 5. What's the receiver to do with this kind of judgment?

R,A 6. Factual data followed by a personal assumption.

R 7. See 1, above.

R 8. See 1, above.

R 9. See 1, above.

C,E 10. Judging the other person's behavior on an assumption.

G 11. Your receiver has ESP, maybe?

C,E 12. Close to gross--who's to define "freaky?"

C,E 13. See 12.

C,P 14. Judgment and sentencing.

OPTION C

PURPOSE:

To give feedback that makes a distinction between observations and assumptions.

To further explore fantasies participants hold about trainers and training.

MATERIALS:

None

PROCEDURE:

1. Form dyads.
2. One participant makes observations, and on the basis of them, states assumptions as to how that person would be as a trainer.

   For example: "I see you are wearing a business suit. Everything is color coordinated. I imagine that you'd be a very competent, well-organized trainer."
3. The other participant does the same.

TIME:

20 minutes

WORKSHEET VI-2
PRACTICE IN PROCESSING
(FOR EXERCISE VI-2)

PURPOSE:

To process an experiential exercise in terms of its theoretical content and the feelings it generates in participants.

MATERIALS:

Descriptions of three exercises that can be used. (Small group "trainer" may substitute any appropriate exercise with which he or she is familiar.)

PROCEDURE:

1. Break into small groups of four.
2. One (or two) participant(s) are designated as "trainer" (or "trainer" and "cotrainer").
3. "Trainer(s)" sets a context for the exercise and gives necessary instructions.
4. Trainer(s) facilitates exercise.
5. All members of small group jot down notes with respect to the EIAG process (i.e., what were the important elements, what can be generalized).
6. "Trainer" makes interventions to help group process the experience. Group members may act as "alter egos" supplying additional interventions or building upon those made.
7. Reconvene in large group.

TIME:

30 minutes

WORKSHEET VI-3
INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATION(S) TO THE GROUP
(FOR EXERCISE VI-3)

PURPOSE:

To facilitate group in processing a learning piece presented by a participant.

MATERIALS:

Module V, Participant Manual

PROCEDURE:

1. Break large group into small groups of five or six participants.
2. Two participants within each small group volunteer or are chosen within each group.
3. These two prepare a 10-minute presentation on interventions for processing content and feeling generated by the presentation. They may choose from their own experience(s) or use a resource notebook to generate a presentation. (While they take 10 minutes to prepare, other group members may take a break).
4. In turn, each delivers and processes his or her presentation.

TIME:

60 minutes

REFERENCE SHEET VI-1
AIDS FOR GIVING AND RECEIVING FEEDBACK

by

George F.J. Lehner, Ph.D.

Unpublished paper, Psychology Department, University of California at Los Angeles.

AIDS FOR GIVING AND RECEIVING FEEDBACK

Some of the most important data we can receive from others (or give to others) consists of feedback related to our behavior. Such feedback can provide learning opportunities for each of us if we can use the reactions of others as a mirror for observing the consequences of our behavior. Such personal data feedback helps to make us more aware of *what* we do and *how* we do it, thus increasing our ability to modify and change our behavior and to become more effective in our interactions with others.

To help us develop and use the techniques of feedback for personal growth, it is necessary to understand certain characteristics of the process. The following is a brief outline of some factors which may assist us in making better use of feedback, both as the giver and the receiver of feedback. This list is only a starting point. You may wish to add further items to it.

1. Focus feedback on behavior rather than the person

It is important that we refer to what a person *does* rather than comment on what we imagine he *is*. This focus on behavior further implies that we use adverbs (which relate to actions) rather than adjectives (which relate to qualities) when referring to a person. Thus we might say a person "talked considerably in this meeting," rather than that this person "is a loudmouth." When we talk in terms of "personality traits" it implies inherited constant qualities difficult, if not impossible, to change. Focusing on *behavior* implies that it is something related to a specific situation that might be changed. It is less threatening to a person to hear comments on his behavior than his "traits."

2. Focus feedback on observations rather than inferences

Observations refer to what we can see or hear in the behavior of another person, while inferences refer to *interpretations* and conclusions which *we make* from what we see or hear. In a sense, inferences or *conclusions* about a person contaminate our observations, thus clouding the feedback for another person. When inferences or conclusions are shared and it may be valuable to have this data, it is important that they be so identified.

3. Focus feedback on description rather than judgment

The effort to describe represents a process for reporting what occurred, while judgment refers to an evaluation in terms of good or bad, right or wrong, nice or not nice. The judgments arise out of a personal frame of reference or values, whereas description represents *neutral* (as far as possible) reporting.

4. *Focus feedback on descriptions of behavior which are in terms of "more or less" rather than in terms of "either-or"*

The "more or less" terminology implies a continuum on which any behavior may fall, stressing quantity, which is objective and measurable, rather than quality, which is subjective and judgmental. Thus, participation of a person may *fall* on a continuum from low participation to *high* participation, rather than "good" or "bad" participation. Not to think in terms of "more or less" and the use of continua is to trap outselves into thinking in categories, which may then represent serious distortions of reality.

5. *Focus feedback on behavior related to a specific situation, preferably to the "here and now" rather than to behavior in the abstract, placing it in the "there and then"*

What you and I do is always tied in some way to time and place, and we increase our understanding of behavior by keeping it tied to time and place. Feedback is generally more meaningful if given as soon as appropriate after the observation or reactions occur, thus keeping it concrete and relatively free of distortions that come with the lapse of time.

6. *Focus feedback on the sharing of ideas and information rather than on giving advice*

By sharing ideas and information we leave the person free to decide for himself, in the light of his own goals in a particular situation at a partiular time, how to *use* the ideas and the information. When we give advice we tell him what to do with the information, and in that sense we take away his freedom to determine for himself what is *for him* the most appropriate course of action.

7. *Focus feedback on exploration of alternatives rather than answers or solutions*

The more we can focus on a variety of procedures and means for the attainment of a particular goal, the less likely we are to accept prematurely a particular answer or solution--which may or may not fit our particular problem. Many of us go around with a number of answers and solutions for which there are no problems.

8. *Focus feedback on the value it may have to the recipient, not on the value or "release" that it provides the person giving the feedback*

The feedback provided should serve the needs of the recipient rather than the needs of the giver. Help and feedback need to be given and heard as an offer, not an imposition.

9. *Focus feedback on the amount of information that the person receiving it can use, rather than on the amount that you have which you might like to give*

To overload a person with feedback is to reduce the possibility that he may use what he receives effectively. When we give more than can be used we may be satisfying some need for ourselves rather than helping the other person.

10. *Focus feedback on time and place so that personal data can be shared at appropriate times*

Because the reception and use of personal feedback involves many possible emotional reactions, it is important to be sensitive to when it is appropriate to provide feedback. Excellent feedback presented at an inappropriate time may do more harm than good.

11. *Focus feedback on what is said rather than why it is said*

The aspects of feedback which relate to the *what, how, when, where,* of what is said are observable characteristics. The *why* of what is said takes us from the observable to the inferred, and brings up questions of "motive" or "intent."

It may be helpful to think of "why" in terms of a specifiable goal or goals--which can then be considered in terms of time, place, procedures. probabilities of attainment, etc. To make assumptions about the motives of the person giving feedback may prevent us from hearing or cause us to distort what is said. In short, if I question "why" a person gives me feedback, I may not hear *what* he says.

In short, the giving (and receiving) of feedback requires courage, skill, understanding, and respect for self and others.

REFERENCE SHEET VI-2
SOME GUIDELINES FOR PROCESSING EXPERIENCES AND LEARNING

- Allow the work to come from the group rather than the trainer.
- Ensure that communication is betwen participants rather than from participant to trainer and trainer to participant.
- Allow sharing of past experiences with the piece of knowledge under discussion as to its use of applicability in the present.
- Use nondirective questions when possible.
- Ensure that participants take responsibility for what they say: "I" rather than "we."
- Keep goals and objectives of module and exercise in mind when processing.
- Allow ventilation of feelings in proportion to emotionality of the content or experience.
- If intense feelings are generated, don't let one person get labeled and scapegoated; distribute the feeling.
- Constantly ensure that helpful, descriptive feedback is given according to rules in previous article.

REFERENCE SHEET VI-3
THE TRAINING DESIGN MODEL: THE EIAG PROCESS

A training design is an attempt to plan a group's behavior in order to help group members learn something. The basic model for the design of most training sessions is the EIAG process. The EIAG process is a structured way of learning from experience. It is based upon the concept that people learn best by being actively involved in their own learning. EIAG is composed of four steps: The learner:

- Has an experience,
- Identifies the elements of that experience,
- Analyzes the meaning, usefulness, and applicability of what was learned,
- Generalizes about knowledge and skills acquired in this specific situation so that they can be applied in other situations.

E--Experience

Experiences in the training session should be related to information and skills the trainees want to learn. Trainees might try out certain tasks they'll be expected to perform on the job. For example, a module on treatment planning might include a videotape of a client presenting his case. Trainees would then use the information from the videotape to develop a treatment plan for this client. In this case, the videotape is the experience element of the EIAG process.

I--Identify

The trainess must identify what happened during the experience. We may notice only one or two things ourselves, but in fact many things are happening at the same time during any event. Pooling the group's observations of behaviors, ideas, and feelings ensures that everyone shares the same information about the experience. For example, after the experience of watching the videotape, trainees would identify the needs of the client. One person might identify two or three needs, while other group members might see, hear, and state other needs. Everything noticed should be discussed.

A--Analyze

Trainees should then think about why things happen as they did. They need to try to discover causes and forces--why the client expressed himself in a particular way, why he focused on some things and did not mention others, why he acted as he did. How did his actions affect the viewer? How did they affect the development of the treatment plan?

G--Generalize

After they have analyzed the situation, trainees should then apply what was learned in this specific situation to more general circumstances. What was learned from this experience in treatment planning that can be applied on the job? Generalizing is extremely important: trainees must be able to apply what they have learned in a controlled environment (the training session) to their jobs; otherwise, there is no purpose in training.

While the EIAG process is built into the design of most learning activities, it is made explicit as the trainer processes the activity. The trainer does this by:

- Reviewing or enabling participants to discuss meaningful aspects of the EXPERIENCE
- Enabling participants to IDENTIFY the behaviors, ideas, or feelings experienced
- Enabling participants to ANALYZE the meaning, usefulness, applicability of the behaviors, ideas, or feelings
- Enabling participants to take the specific behaviors, ideas, and feelings and apply them to other, possibly more complex situations that might be encountered back home; that is, to GENERALIZE from the training group to their on-the-job situation.

What we do naturally in "learning from experience" provides an excellent model for designing an effective training event and for processing discrete learning experiences. Training groups have a tendency to move quickly. It is very important that both the trainer and the group understand that people learn only when they take time to thoroughly identify and analyze an experience and to generalize from it.

REFERENCE SHEET VI-4
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SELECTED READING VI-1

FEEDBACK: THE ART OF GIVING AND RECEIVING HELP

by

Cyril R. Mill

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FEEDBACK: THE ART OF GIVING AND RECEIVING HELP

Feedback is a way of helping another person to consider changing his behavior. It is communication to a person which gives him information about some aspect of his behavior and its effect on you. As in a guided missile system, feedback helps an individual know whether his behavior is having the effect that he wants; it tells him whether he is "on target" as he strives to achieve his goals.

CRITERIA FOR USEFUL FEEDBACK

The giving and receiving of feedback is a skill that can be acquired. When feedback is attempted at the wrong time or given in the wrong way the results will be at best useless, and may be disastrous. Therefore, developing feedback skills can be important. Here are some criteria for useful feedback:

- It is descriptive rather than evaluative. It is helpful to focus on what the individual did rather than to translate his behavior into a statement about what he is. *"You have interrupted three people in the last half hour"* is probably not something that a person really wants to hear, but it is likely to be more helpful than, *"You are a bad-mannered oaf."*

- It focuses on the feelings generated in the person who has experienced the behavior and who is offering the feedback. *"When you interrupt me I feel frustrated,"* gives the individual clear information about the effect of his behavior, while at the same time leaving him free to decide what he wants to do about that effect.

- It is specific rather than general. For example, it is probably more useful to learn that you *"talk too much"* than to have someone describe you as *"dominating."*

- It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control.

- It is solicited rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver feels that he needs and wants it, when he himself has formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer.
- It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior, depending, of course, on the receiver's readiness to hear it, support available from others, and so on.
- It is checked to ensure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback in question to see whether the receiver's version corresponds with what the sender meant.
- When feedback is given in a training group, both giver and receiver have opportunity to check its accuracy with others in the group. Thus the receiver will know whether this is one person's impression or an impression shared by others.
- Feedback should not be given primarily to "dump" or "unload" on another. If you feel you have to say this to the other person, then ask yourself who it is you are trying to "help."
- Feedback does not ask "Why?" It stays within the bounds of behavior and one's reactions to that behavior. To theorize about or ask why a person does a certain thing is to plumb the depths of motivation and, perhaps, of the unconscious. Avoiding the "whys" will help one to avoid the error of amateur psychologizing.

Given the premise that properly given feedback can be a fine way to learn about oneself, what are some reasons that we resist it? For one thing, it is hard to admit our difficulties to ourselves. It is even harder to admit them to someone else. We are not sure that the other person can be trusted or that his observations are valid. We may be afraid of learning what others think of us; we often expect to hear only negative opinions about ourselves, tending to overlook our positive qualities.

We may have struggled so hard to make ourselves independent that the thought of depending on another individual seems to violate something within us. Or we may during all our lives have looked for someone on whom to depend, and we try to repeat this pattern in our relationship with the helping person.

We may be looking for sympathy and support rather than for help in seeing our difficulty more clearly. When the helper tries to point out some of the ways we are contributing to the problem, which might suggest that we as well as others will have to change, we may stop listening. Solving a problem may mean uncovering some of the sides of ourselves which we have avoided or wished to avoid thinking about.

We may feel our problem is so unique no one could ever understand it and certainly not an outsider.

On the other side of the interchange, it is not always easy to give feedback to others. Most of us like to give advice. Doing so suggests that we are competent and important. We get caught up in a "telling" role easily enough without testing whether our advice is appropriate to the total issue or to the abilities, the fears, or the powers of the person we are trying to help.

If the person whom we are trying to help becomes defensive, we may try to argue or pressure him. Defensiveness or denial on the part of the receiver is a clear indication that we are going about trying to be helpful in the wrong way. Our timing is off or we may be simply mistaken about his behavior, but in any case, it is best to desist until we can reevaluate the situation. If we respond to the receiver's resistance with more pressure, resistance will only increase.

Feedback takes into account the needs of both the receiver and the giver. Positive feedback is welcomed by the receiver when it is genuine. If feedback is given in a training laboratory under the conditions described here, it can become one of the primary means of learning about self.

SELECTED READING VI-2

GIVING FEEDBACK: AN INTERPERSONAL SKILL

by

Philip G. Hanson, Ph.D.

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GIVING FEEDBACK: AN INTERPERSONAL SKILL

The process of giving and asking for feedback is probably the most important dimension of laboratory education. It is through feedback that we can learn to "see ourselves as others see us." This, of course, is not an easy task. Effectively giving and receiving feedback implies certain key ingredients: caring trusting, acceptance, openness, and a concern for the needs of others. Thus, how evaluative, judgmental, or helpful feedback is may finally depend on the personal philosophy of the individuals involved. Nevertheless, giving feedback is a *skill* that can be learned and developed and for which certain useful guidelines exist.

The term "feedback" was borrowed from rocket engineering by Kurt Lewin, a founder of laboratory education. A rocket sent into space contains a mechanism that sends signals back to Earth. On Earth, a steering apparatus receives these signals, makes adjustments if the rocket is off target, and corrects its course. The group can be seen as such a steering mechanism, sending signals when group members are off target in terms of the goals they have set for themselves. These signals--feedback--can then be used by an individual to correct his course. For example, a person's goal may be to become more aware of himself and to learn how his behavior affects others. Information from the group can help him to ascertain whether he is moving toward this goal. If he reacts to criticisms of his behavior by getting angry, leaving the room, or otherwise acting defensively, he will not reach his goal. Group members may help him by saying, "George, every time we give you feedback, you do something that keeps us from giving you further information. If you continue this kind of behavior, you will not reach your goal." If George responds to the "steering" of the group by adjusting his direction, he can again move toward his target. Feedback, then, is a technique that helps members of a group achieve their goals. It is also a means of comparing one's own perceptions of his behavior with others' perceptions.

Giving feedback is a verbal or nonverbal process through which an individual lets others know his perceptions and feelings about *their* behavior. When *soliciting* feedback, an individual is asking for others' perceptions and feelings about *his* behavior. Most people give and receive feedback daily without being aware of doing so. One purpose of laboratory training is to increase the awareness of this process so that it can be engaged in intentionally rather than unconsciously.

INFORMATION-EXCHANGE PROCESS

Between two people, the process of exchange goes something like

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this: Person A's *intention* is to act in relation to person B, who sees only person A's *behavior.* Between his intention and his behavior comes an encoding process that person A uses to make his behavior congruent with his intentions. Person B perceives person A's behavior, inteprets it (a decoding process), and intends to respond. Between person B's intention and his responding behavior an encoding process also occurs. Person A then perceives person B's responding behavior and inteprets it. However, if either person's process is ineffective, the receiver may respond in a manner that will confuse the sender. Although the feedback process can help an individual discover whether his behavior is congruent with his intentions, the process focuses on *behavior* rather than on *intentions.* An individual's intentions are private; unless he explains them, other people can only conjecture what those intentions are. One of the most confusing aspects of communication is that people tend to give feedback about other people's *intentions*, rather than their *behavior.* Causing further confusion is the fact that many people perceive behavior as being negatively intended, when in fact it is not. It is often difficult to see that the sender's intentions may not be what they are perceived to be.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR FEEDBACK

In many feedback exchanges, the question of ownership frequently arises: How much responsibility should the giver assume for his behavior and the receiver for his response? If person A behaves so that he evokes a negative response (feedback) from person B, how much ownership should each assume for his part of the interaction? Some people are willing to assume more than their share of the responsibility for another person's responses, while others refuse to own any responsibility for their behavior.

For example, an individual may be habitually late for group meetings and may receive feedback concerning members' negative reactions to this behavior. His response is to point out to the group members their lack of tolerance for individual differences. He says that they are limiting his freedom and that they seem to be investing too much responsibility in him for the group's effectiveness. He states that he wants to be involved in the group, but he does not understand why they need to be on time.

This situation presents a value dilemma to the group; his observations are accurate, but his behavior is provocative. One clarification of this dilemma is to point out that, while an individual owns only his behavior, the reactions of others inevitably affect him. To the extent that he cares about the others or his relationship with them, he must consider their responses.

Concern for the needs of others as well as one's own is a critical dimension in the exchange of feedback. Ownership or responsibility for one's behavior and the consequences of that behavior overlap between the giver and receiver of feedback. The problem lies in reaching some mutual agreement concerning where one person's responsibility ends and the other's begins.

GUIDELINES FOR USING FEEDBACK

It is possible to minimize a person's defensiveness in receiving feedback and to maximize his ability to use it for his personal growth. Regardless of how accurate feedback may be, if a person cannot accept the information because he is defensive, then feedback is useless. Feedback must be given so that the person receiving it can *hear* it in the most objective and least distorted way possible, *understand* it, and choose to *use* it or *not use* it.

The following guidelines are listed as if they were bipolar, with the second term in each dimension describing the more effective method of giving feedback. For example, in one group George, intending to compliment Marie, says to her, "I wish I could be more selfish, like you." Marie might respond, "Why, you insensitive boor, what do you mean by saying I'm selfish?" George might then get defensive and retaliate, and both people would become involved in the game of "who-can-hurt-whom-the-most." Instead, Marie might give George feedback by stating her position in another way. That is, she could say, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded." This second method of giving feedback contains positive elements that the first does not.

Indirect vs Direct Expression of Feelings

When Marie stated that George was an insensitive boor, she was expressing her feelings indirectly. That statement might imply that she was feeling angry or irritated, but one could not be certain. On the other hand, Marie expressed her feelings directly when she said, "I felt angry and degraded." She committed herself, and there was no need to guess her feelings. If Tom says to Andy, "I like you," he is expressing his feelings directly, risking rejection. However, if he says, "You are a likeable person," the risk is less. Indirect expression of feelings is safer because it is ambiguous. Andy might guess that Tom likes him, but Tom can always deny it. If Andy rejects Tom by saying, "I am happy to hear that I am likeable, but I do not like you," Tom can counter, "You are a likeable person, but *I* do not like you." Indirect expression of feelings offers an escape from commitment.

"You are driving too fast" is an indirect expression of feelings. "I am anxious because you are driving too fast" is a direct expression of feelings. Indirect statements often begin with "I feel that ..." and finish with a perception or opinion, for example, "I feel that you are angry." This is an indirect expression or perception and does not state what "I" is feeling. Instead, "I am anxious because you look angry" expresses the speaker's feelings directly and also states a perception. People frequently assume that they are expressing their feelings directly when they state opinions and perceptions starting with "I feel that ...," but they are not.

Interpretation vs Description of Behavior

In the original example in which Marie said to George, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded," Marie was describing the behavior to which she was reacting. She was not attributing a motive to George's behavior, such as "You are hostile," or "You do not like me." When one attributes a motive to a person's behavior one is interpreting that person's *intention.* Since his intention is private and available only to him, interpretation of his behavior is highly questionable. In addition, one person's interpretations probably arise from a theory of personality that may not be shared by the other person. For example, if William is fidgeting in his chair and shuffling his feet, and Walter says, "You are anxious," Walter is interpreting William's behavior. Walter's theory of personality states that when a person fidgets in his chair and shuffles his feet, he is manifesting anxiety. Such a theory interposed between two people may create a distance between them or act as a barrier to understanding. If, instead, Walter *describes* William's behavior, William may interpret his own behavior by saying, "I need to go to the bathroom."

In any event, interpreting another person's behavior or ascribing motives to it tends to put that person on the defensive and makes him spend his energies on either explaining his behavior or defending himself. It deprives him of the opportunity to interpret or make sense of his own behavior and, at the same time, makes him dependent on the interpreter. The feedback, regardless of how much insight it contains, cannot be used.

Evaluative vs Nonevaluative Feedback

Effective feedback to George was not accomplished by calling him names such as "insensitive boor" or, in other words, evaluating him as a person. When giving feedback, one must respond not to the personal worth of the person but to his *behavior.* When someone is told that he is "stupid" or "insensitive," it is extremely difficult for him to respond objectively. He may sometimes *act* stupidly or *behave* in an insensitive way, but that does not mean that he is a stupid or insensitive person. Evaluating a person casts one in the role of a judge and places that person in the role of being judged. In addition, a frame of reference or set of values is imposed that may not be applicable to, or shared by, other people. That is, the person making the evaluation assumes that he can distinguish between a "good" person and a "bad" person or between "right" and "wrong," and that if the receiver of the feedback does not exemplify these values, the sender will be unhappy with him.

Response to Evaluative Feedback

It is difficult for anyone to respond to evaluative feedback because it usually offends his feelings of worth and self-esteem. These are core concepts about ourselves that cannot be changed readily by feedback, nor can they be easily interpreted in terms of actual behavior. It is difficult, for example, to point out to an individual the specific behaviors that manifest low self-esteem. If a person is given feedback that he is "stupid," he may not know what *behaviors* to change. It is the person's observable behavior and not his self-esteem that must be responded to when giving feedback.

An additional problem with evaluative feedback is that it often engenders defensiveness. When this occurs, the feedback is not likely to be useful.

General vs Specific Feedback

When Marie responded to George by saying, "When you said, 'I wish I could be more selfish, like you,' I felt angry and degraded," she was describing a *specific* behavior. If she had said, "You are hostile," she would have been giving feedback in *general* terms; George might not have known to which behavior she was reacting. The term "hostile" does not specify *what* evoked a response in Marie. If George wanted to change he would not know what behavior to change. However, when the sender is specific, the receiver knows to what behavior the sender is responding, which he can then change or modify. Feedback expressed in general terms, such as "You are a warm person," does not allow the receiver to know what specific behavior is perceived as warm. He cannot expand or build on this feedback until he knows which behavior evoked the response "warm."

Pressure to Change vs Freedom of Choice to Change

When Marie told George that she felt angry and degraded by George's statement, she did not tell him he had to change his behavior. If she or the feedback were important to George, however, he would probably change anyway; if these were not important to him, he might decide not to change. A person should have the freedom to use feedback in any meaningful way without being required to change. When the giver of feedback tells a person to change, he is assuming that he knows the correct standards for right and wrong or good and bad behavior and that the receiver needs to adopt those standards for his own good (or to save the sender the trouble of changing). Imposing standards on another person and expecting him to conform arouses resistance and resentment. The sender assumes that his standards are superior. A major problem in marriages arises when spouses tell each other that they must change their behaviors and attitudes to conform with one or the other partner's expectations and demands. These pressures to change can be very direct or very subtle, creating a competitive, win-lose relationship.

Expression of Disappointment as Feedback

Sometimes feedback reflects the sender's disappointment that the receiver did not meet his expectations and hopes. For example, a group leader may be disappointed that a member did not actualize his potential impact on the group, or a professor may be disappointed in a student's lack of achievement. These situations represent a dilemma. An important part of the sender's feedback is his own feelings, whether they are disappointment or satisfaction; if he withholds these feelings and/or perceptions, he may give the receiver a false impression. If, however, he expresses his disappointment, the receiver may experience this feedback as an indication of personal failure instead of as an incentive to change.

Persistent Behavior

Frequently the complaint is heard that a group member persists in a behavior that others find irritating, despite the feedback he receives. Group members exclaim, "What are we supposed to do? He won't change!" The most the members can do is to continue to confront the offender with their feelings. While he has the freedom not to change, he will also have to accept the consequences of his decision, i.e., other people's continuing irritation at his behavior and their probable punitive reactions. He cannot reasonably expect other group members both to feel positive toward him and to accept the behavior they find irritating.

The only person an individual can change is himself. As a by-product of his change, other people may change in relationship to him. As the individual changes, others will have to adjust their behavior to his. No one should be forced to change. Such pressure may produce superficial conformity, but also underlying resentment and anger.

Delayed vs Immediate Timing

To be most effective, feedback should, whenever possible, be given immediately after the event. In the initial example of the exchange between George and Marie, if Marie had waited until the next day to give feedback, George might have responded with "I don't remember saying that," or if Marie had asked the other group members later they might have responded with only a vague recollection; the event had not been significant to them, although it had been to Marie.

When feedback is given immediatley after the event, the event is fresh in everyone's mind. It is like a mirror of the person's behavior, reflected to him through feedback. Other group members can also contribute their observations about the interaction. There is often, however, a tendency to delay feedback. A person may fear losing control of his feelings, fear hurting the other person's feelings, or fear exposing himself to other people's criticisms. Nevertheless, although the "here-and-now" transactions of group life can often be most threatening, they can also be most exciting and growth producing.

Planned Feedback

An exception to this guideline is the periodic feedback session, planned to keep communication channels open. Staff members in work units or departments may have weekly feedback meetings, or a specific time may be set aside for structured or unstructured feedback sessions in one- or two-week workshops. In these scheduled sessions, participants may cover events occurring since the last session or may work with material generated during their current meeting. For this process to be effective, however, the decision to have these feedback sessions should be reached through a consensus of the participants.

External vs Group-Shared Feedback

When feedback is given immediately after the event, it is usually group shared, so that other members can look at the interaction as it occurs. For example, if group members had reacted to

George's statement ("I wish I could be more selfish, like you") by saying, "If I were in your shoes, Marie, I wouldn't have felt degraded" or "I did not perceive it as degrading," then Marie would have had to look at her behavior and its appropriateness. If, on the other hand, group members had supported Marie's feelings and perceptions (consensual validation), her feedback would have had more potency.

Events that occur outside the group ("there-and-then") may be known to only one or two group members and, consequently, cannot be reacted to or discussed meaningfully by other participants. In addition, other group members may feel left out during these discussions. For example, when a group member is discussing an argument he had with his wife, the most assistance group members can provide is to attempt to perceive from his behavior in the group what occurred in that interaction and to share these conjectures with him. Since, in describing the event, the group member's perception is colored by his own bias and emotional involvement, group members may receive a distorted picture of the argument and may not be able to discriminate between fact and fiction. If the argument had occurred in the group, however, group members could have been helpful since they would have shared the event. Then, if the involved group member had begun describing his perceptions of what happened, other group members could have commented on or shared their perceptions of the interaction.

Use of There-and-Then

In other words, events within the group can be processed by all group members who witness the interaction; they can share their perceptions and feelings about what occurred. This does not mean that group members cannot get *some* value from describing events external to the group and receiving comments from other members. What happens frequently, however, is that the group member describes these events in such a way as to elicit support or confirmation of his own perceptions rather than objective evaluation. Yet this relation of there-and-then events to the here-and-now can often be extremely productive as back-home "bridges." It can also be productive when some members have had long-term relationships with one another. It is important, at these times, to recognize both the necessity and the difficulty of involving other group members in the discussion.

Consistent Perceptions

Shared perceptions of what happens in here-and-now events is one of the primary values of a group. "Group shared" also implies that, ideally, each member has to participate. Frequently a person gets feedback from *one* member in the group and assumes that the rest of the group feels the same. This is not always a correct assumption. Feedback from only one person may present a very private or distorted picture because that person's perceptions of the event may differ from other group members'. When everyone's reactions are given, however, the receiver has a much better view of his behavior. If the group members are consistent in their perception of the receiver, and this disagrees with the receiver's view of himself, then he needs to look more closely at the validity of his self-perceptions. Frequently the fact that people perceive an individual's behavior differently is useful information in itself. Part of each group member's responsibility is to ask for feedback from members who are not responding so that the receiver will know how everyone sees his behavior. The receiver may have to be somewhat aggressive and persistent in seeking this information. Group members may tend to say "me, too" when their feedback is being given by someone else. When *all* the data have been obtained, the receiver is in a better position to make a more effective decision regarding his use of the feedback.

Imposed vs Solicited Feedback

In most exchanges, feedback is usually imposed. People give feedback whether it is solicited or not and whether the person is prepared to receive it or not. In addition, the sender's need to give feedback may be much greater than the individual's need to receive it. This is particularly true when the sender is upset about something concerning the potential recipient. In many situations, it is legitimate to impose feedback, particularly when a norm exists for giving as well as for soliciting feedback, or in order to induce a norm of spontaneity. However, feedback is usually more helpful when the person solicits it. Asking for feedback may indicate that the receiver is prepared to listen and wants to know how others perceive his behavior.

In asking for feedback, however, it is important to follow some of the same guidelines as for giving feedback. For example, a person should be specific about the subject on which he wants feedback. The individual who says to the group, "I would like the group to tell me what they think about me" may receive more feedback than he planned. In addition, the request is so general that the group members may be uncertain about where to begin or which behaviors are relevant to the request. In these cases, other group members can help the receiver by asking such questions as "Can you be more specific?" or "About what do you want feedback?" Feedback is a reciprocal process; both senders and receivers can help each other in soliciting and in giving it.

Sometimes it is also important to provide feedback on how a person is giving feedback. If a receiver is upset, hurt, or angry, other group members can say to the sender, "Look how you told him that; I would be angry, too" or "What other way could you have given him the same information without evaluating him or degrading him?" It is desirable to give feedback so that the receiver can preserve his self-esteem.

Many people want to know how their behavior is being perceived by others, but they fear the consequences of asking for such information. How easily a person will ask for feedback is related to the amount of trust in the interpersonal relationship. However, people fear that the receiver will use their feedback (particularly negative feedback) to reinforce his negative feelings about himself. Again, it is sometimes difficult for a person to separate his behavior from his feelings of self-worth.

Unmodifiable vs Modifiable Behavior

To be effective, feedback should be aimed at behavior that is relatively easy to change. Many individuals' behaviors are habitual and could be described as a personal style developed through years of behaving and responding in certain ways. Feedback on this kind of behavior often is frustrating because the behavior can be very difficult to change.

Feedback on behaviors that are difficult to change may often make the person self-conscious and anxious about his behavior. For example, if the wife of a chain smoker gives him feedback (using all of the appropriate guidelines) about his smoking behavior, it would still be very difficult for him to change. Chain-smoking is a behavior determined by often unknown causes. The individual may smoke to reduce his tension level; continuous feedback on his smoking behavior may only increase his tension. Consequently, he smokes more to reduce that tension.

Occasionally, in giving feedback, one must determine whether the behavior represents an individual's life style or results from some unknown personality factors. Sometimes it may be helpful first to ask the receiver whether he perceives his behavior as modifiable. Many behaviors can be easily changed through feedback and the person's conscious desire to change his behavior in order to produce a more effective interpersonal style.

Motivation to Hurt vs Motivation to Help

It is assumed that the primary motivation of membership in growth groups is to help oneself and others to grow. When an individual is angry, however, his motivation may be to hurt the other person. Frequently, the conflict turns into win-lose strategies in which the goal of the interaction is to degrade the other person. It is difficult when one is angry to consider that the needs of the other person are as important as one's own. Angry feedback may be useless, even when the information is potentially helpful, because the receiver may need to reject the feedback in order to protect his integrity.

Coping with Anger

There are several ways to cope with anger. One is to engage in a verbal or physical attack that frequently increases in intensity. Another method to deal with anger is to suppress it. One consequence of this strategy, however, is that the individual builds internal pressure to the point that he can lose control of his behavior. A third--and better--method is to talk about personal feelings of anger without assigning responsibility for them to the other person. Focusing on personal feelings may frequently encourage other group members to help the individual. In this way the anger dissipates without either viciousness or suppression. Anger and conflict are not themselves "bad." Angry feelings are as legitimate as any other feelings. Conflict can be a growth-producing phenomenon. It is the manner in which conflict or angry feelings are handled that can have negative consequences. Only through surfacing and resolving conflicts can people develop competence and confidence in dealing with these feelings and situations. Part of the benefit derived from growth groups is learning to express anger or to resolve conflicts in constructive, problem-solving ways.

CONCLUSION

The process of giving feedback obviously would be hampered if one attempted to consider *all* of the above guidelines. Some are needed more frequently than others: i.e., feedback should be descriptive, nonevaluative, specific, and should embody freedom of choice. These guidelines can also be used diagnostically. For example, when the person receiving feedback reacts defensively, some of the guidelines have probably been violated. Group members can ask the receiver how he heard the feedback and help the giver assess how he gave it.

Giving feedback effectively may depend on an individual's values and basic philosophy about himself, about his relationships with others, and about other people in general. Certain guidelines, however, can be learned and are valuable in helping people give and receive effective and useful feedback.

SELECTED READING VI-3

THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTION

This paper discusses three perspectives on the process of interpersonal communication. The first section consists of selections from W. Warner Burke's article, "Interpersonal Communication," in which he notes some of the problems that people have in trying to communicate and also discusses a few ways to improve our capabilities as communicators. The second section describes the two levels inherent in any communication, that of content and that of process, and focuses on three aspects of process skills that trainers can use to encourage open, spontaneous behavior. The third section discusses the concept of "feedback": eight feedback rules that can be used to facilitate interpersonal communication, steps to follow in giving feedback, and some common problems that can hinder effective feedback.

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Interpersonal Communication--The Sender

> Communication, by definition, involves at least two individuals, the sender and the receiver. Consider yourself, first of all, as the sender of some message. There are certain filters or barriers (internal) which determine whether or not the message is actually transmitted. These barriers may be categorized as follows: (1) Assumptions about yourself--Do I really have something to offer? Do I really want to share the information? Will others really understand? How will the communication affect my self-esteem? (2) Attitudes about the message itself--Is the information valuable? Do I see the information correctly, or understand it well enough to describe it to others? (3) Sensing the receiver's reaction--Do I become aware of whether or not the receiver is actually understanding? Or in other words, can I "sense" from certain cues or reactions by the receiver whether or not we are communicating?
>
> Now consider yourself as the receiver. As a receiver you may filter or not hear aspects (or any aspect for that matter) of a message. Why? Because the message may seem unimportant or too difficult. Moreover, you may be selective in your attention. For example, you may

feel that the sender is being redundant, so you quit listening after the first few words. You may be preoccupied with something else. Or your filtering or lack of attention may be due to your past experience with the sender. You may feel that "this guy has never made a point in his life and never will!"

Many times the receiver never makes use of his "third ear." That is, trying to be sensitive to nonverbal communication. The sender's eyes, gestures, and sometimes his overall posture communicate messages that the insensitive listener never receives.

There may be barriers that exist between the sender and the receiver, e.g., cultural differences. Environmental conditions may also cause barriers, e.g., poor acoustics. More common, however, are the differences in frames of reference. For example, there may not be a common understanding of purpose in a certain communication. You may ask me how I'm feeling today. To you the phrase, "How ya doing?" is nothing more than a greeting. However, I may think that you really want to know and I may tell you--possibly at length....

There is a fairly small percentage of people who speak articulately and clearly enough to be understood most of the time. Most of us have to work at it, especially when we are attempting to communicate a message which is fairly abstract or when we want to tell something which is quite personal or highly emotional. In sending the message effectively, we must do two things simultaneously, (1) work at finding the appropriate words and emotion to express what we want to say, and (2) continually look for cues from the listener to get some feedback even if we must ask our listener for some.

The Listener

In considering interpersonal communication, we might, at first thought, think that listening is the easier of the two functions in the process. If we assume, however, that the listener really wants to understand what the speaker is saying, then the process is not all that easy. The basic problem that the listener faces is that hs is capable of thinking faster than the speaker can talk. In their *Harvard Business Review* article, Nichols and Stevens state that the average rate of speech for most Americans is about 125 words per minute. Most of our thinking processes involve words, and our brains can handle many more words per minute than 125. As Nichols and Stevens point out, what this means is that, when we listen, our brains receive words at a very slow rate compared with the brain's capabilities....

Thus, a fundamental problem the listener must consider in the communicative process is the fact that his brain is capable of responding to a speaker at several different levels simultaneously. Naturally, this can be an asset to the listener rather than a problem. For example, the listener can attend to nonverbal cues the speaker gives, e.g., facial expression, gesture, or tone of voice, as well as listen to the words themselves.

Besides a highly active brain, an effective listener has another factor to consider in the communicative process. This factor involves the process of trying to perceive what the speaker is saying from his point of view.

The Tendency to Evaluate

According to Carl Rogers, a leading psychotherapist and...researcher, the major barrier to effective communication is the tendency to evaluate...to approve or disapprove the statement or opinion of the other person or group. Suppose someone says to you, "I didn't like what the lecturer had to say." Your typical response will be either agreement or disagreement. In other words, your primary reaction is to evaluate the statement from you own point of view, from you own frame of reference.

Although the inclination to make evaluations is common, it is usually heightened in those situations where feelings and emotions are deeply involved. Thus, the stronger our feelings, the more likely it is that there will be no mutual element in the communication. There will be only two ideas, two feelings, two judgments, missing each other in the heat of the psychological battle.

If having a tendency to evaluate is the major barrier to communication, then the logical gateway to communication is to become an active listener, to listen with understanding. Don't let this simple statement fool you. Listening with understanding means to see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person's point of view, to see how it feels to him, to achieve his frame of reference concerning his subject. One word that summarizes this process of listening with understanding is "empathy."

In psychotherapy, for example, Carl Rogers and his associates have found from research that empathic understanding--understanding *with* a person *not about him**--is such an effective approach that it can bring about major changes in personality....

Toward More Effective Listening

Some steps the listener can take to improve interpersonal communication have been stated. To summarize and be more explicit, let us consider these steps.

1. Effective listening must be an active process. To make certain that you are understanding what the speaker is saying, you, as the listener, must interact with him. One way to do this is to paraphrase or summarize for the speaker what you think he has said.

2. Attending to nonverbal behavior that the speaker is communicating along with his verbal expression usually helps to understand the oral message more clearly. Often a facial expression or gesture will "tell" you that the speaker feels more

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*Editor's italics

strongly about his subject than his words would communicate.

3. The effective listener does not try to memorize every word or fact the speaker communicates, but rather, he listens for the main thought or idea. Since your brain is such a highly effective processor of information, spending your listening time in more than just hearing the words of the speaker can lead to more effective listening. That is, while listening to the words, you can also be searching for the main idea of the message. Furthermore, you can attempt to find the frame of reference for the speaker's message as well as look at what he is saying from his perspective. This empathetic process also includes your attempting to experience the same feeling about the subject as the speaker.

These three steps toward more effective listening seem fairly simple and obvious. But the fact remains that we don't practice these steps very often. Why don't we?

According to Carl Rogers, it takes courage. If you really understand another person in this way, if you are willing to enter his private world and see the way life appears to him without any attempt to make evaluative judgments, you run the risk of being changed yourself. This risk of being changed is one of the most frightening prospects many of us face.

Moreover, when we need to utilize these steps the most, we are likely to use them the least, that is, when the situation involves a considerable amount of emotion. For example, when we listen to a message that contradicts our most deeply held prejudices, opinions, or convictions, our brain becomes stimulated by many factors other than what the speaker is telling us. When we are arguing with someone, especially about something that is "near and dear" to us, what are we typically doing when the other person is making his point? It's certainly not listening empathetically! We're probably planning a rebuttal to what he is saying, or we're formulating a question which will embarrass the speaker. We may, of course, simply be "tuning him out." How often have you been arguing with someone for 30 minutes or so, and you make what you consider to be a major point, and your "opponent" responds by saying, "But that's what I said 30 minutes ago!"

When emotions are strongest, then, it is most difficult to achieve the frame of reference of the other person or group. Yet it is then that empathy is most needed if communication is to be established. A third party, for example, who is able to lay aside his own feelings and evaluation, can assist greatly by listening with understanding to each person or group and clarifying the views and attitudes each holds.

When the parties to a dispute realize that they are being understood, that someone sees how the situation seems to them, the statements grow less exaggerated and less defensive, and it is no longer necessary to maintain the attitude, "I am 100% right and you are 100% wrong."

Summary

Effective communication, at least among human beings, is not a one-way street. It involves an interaction between the speaker and the listener. The responsibility for this interaction is assumed by both parties. You as the speaker can solicit feedback and adjust your message accordingly. As a listener, you can summarize for the speaker what you think he has said and continually practice the empathetic process.

One of the joys of life, at least to me, is to know that I have been heard and understood correctly and to know that someone cares enough to try to understand what I have said. I also get a great deal of satisfaction from seeing this same enjoyment on the face of a speaker when he knows I have understood him (Burke, 1969).

THREE ASPECTS OF PROCESS SKILLS

Within every communication there are two levels: (1) *content*, the topic under discussion, and (2) *process*, feelings about one's self and others during the communication.

> The process level is often more hidden and more subtle than the content level. People generally have great difficulty in communicating feelings [especially] in a group setting...problems...arise between people on the feeling level...and...influence the quality of learning and teaching...(Gorman, 1974).

Gorman concluded that

> ...improvement of teaching is directly related to improvement of communication on both...[the content and the process] levels. Because one level is interrelated with the other, the bypassing or ignoring of the process level creates a more serious impediment to learning than has been realized until recent years.

From the late 50's through the early 70's many books were written and training programs developed that focused on the process aspect of communication and human interaction. As with any novel and exciting concept, this emphasis on process led at times to an overemphasis. "How do you feel about it?" and "What I hear you saying is..." sometimes became overused, hackneyed phrases in the field of human relations.

"What is new...is the focus on process communication *in addition to and combined with* content focus" (Gorman, 1974). In the mid-70's, content and process are equally emphasized as components of effective communication in the teaching process.

In his book *Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process of Education*, Alfred Gorman (1974) highlights three aspects of process skills in communication:

1. The needs of the receiver of feedback

2. The clarity of the message

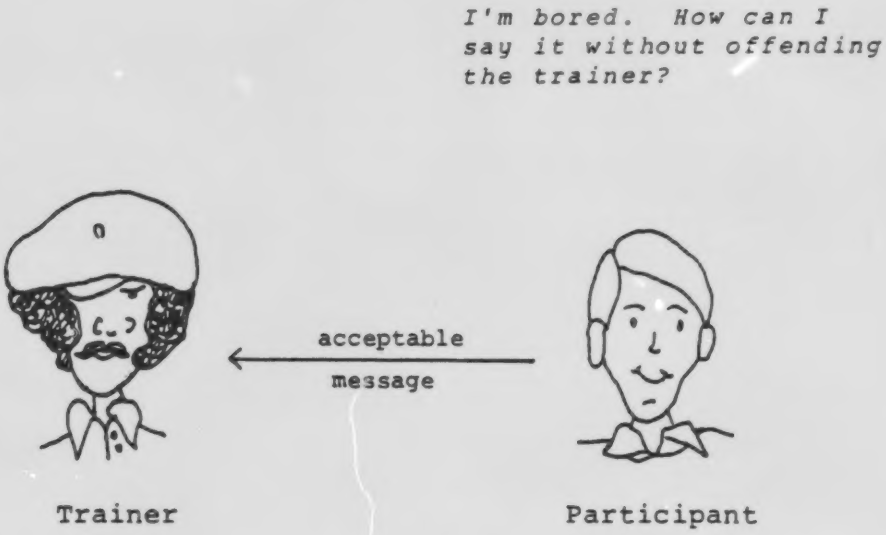
3. The personal responsibility of the (potential) sender

For example, during a training program, if a participant tells the trainer that he is "bored to death," he is expressing his feelings but not very skillfully. If he had well-developed process skills, he would have taken into account *the needs of the receiver*--in this case the trainer--and *the clarity of the message* plus his own *personal responsibility* for the boring situation. As we know, few people have good process skills. The trainer needs to build the type of learning climate that encourages trainees to develop their verbal communication skills.

Receiver Needs

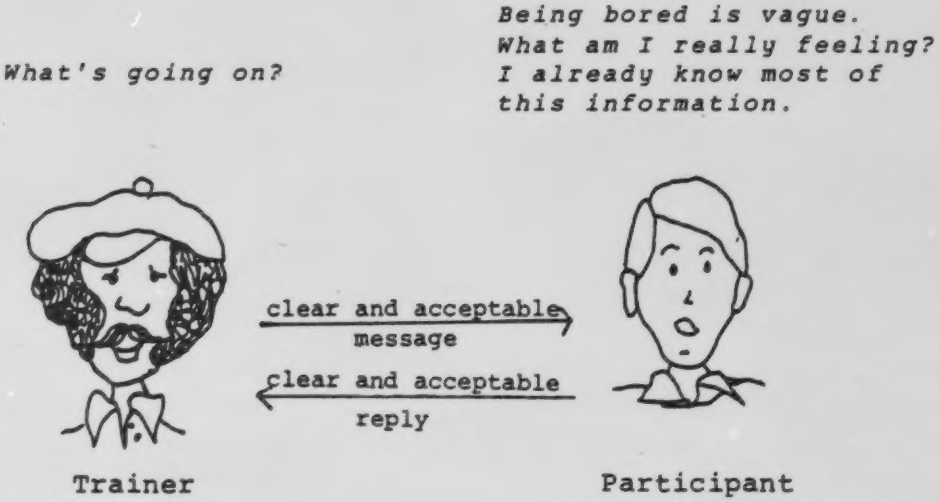
Receivers may need our messages very much. To deal with the problem, in this case, the trainer needs to know that the trainee is bored. The trainee has the alternative of (1) saying nothing verbally *(though the message will still come through nonverbally)*, (2) saying, in a clumsy manner, that he is bored, or (3) communicating his problem to the trainer in a way that the trainer can accept without losing face, in a way that invites them to work together to solve the problem, because the trainer also needs support and respect. Failing to receive these, he may block out the boredom message or he may feel hurt and counterattack the trainee. This causes all sorts of bruised feelings *and does not touch the boredom problem at all.*

What can the trainer do to ensure that the trainee attempts to employ the third alternative? As a potential receiver, he can request that trainees tell him how he is coming across.


I'm bored. How can I say it without offending the trainer?
acceptable
message
Trainer
Participant

Clarity of Message

The need for training in process communication becomes evident whenever people attempt to tell others how they feel. The statement, "I'm bored to death," is a case in point. Even if the receiver of this message could react to it unemotionally, what does boredom really mean? Does it mean that the trainee already knows the content being discussed, has other pressing problems on his mind, feels left out of the group, does not know how to do the work and is frustrated, or does it mean something else? Until the trainer knows more than the bare word *boredom*, he is not in any position to help. If a trainee says, "I'm bored to death," the trainer needs to help the trainee clarify what he means.


What's going on?
Being bored is vague. What am I really feeling? I already know most of this information.
clear and acceptable message
clear and acceptable reply
Trainer
Participant

Personal Responsibility

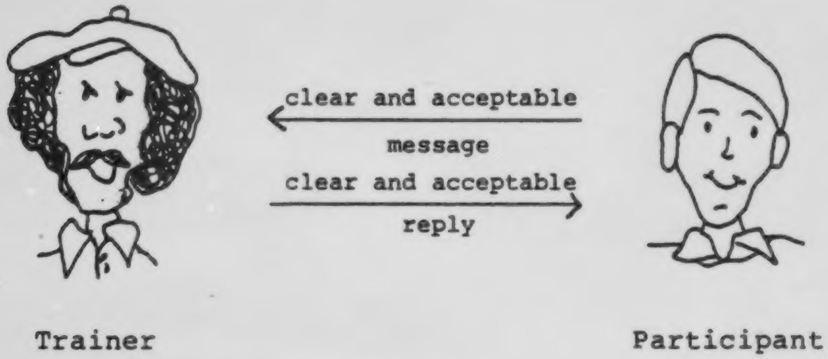
Good trainers do not evade their responsibility for the success of the course--or, more precisely, for the participant's successful learning experience in the course. However, trainers often allow participants to evade their responsibility for making the course a success. Too often trainers fall into the trap of either being experts who tell trainees how to act, or they expect trainees to become responsible for their own learning only after a period of days. The trainee who came to be taught, to receive the "answers," doesn't view learning as a joint responsibility. He doesn't realize that some of this responsibility *is* his. If the trainer makes it clear from the outset that learning is a joint responsibility and demonstrates this approach throughout the course, then both the trainees and the trainer will be free to explore areas for mutual benefit.

We seem to be getting somewhere.

I'm glad he said it that way. It helped me that he told me he knew this information. Now I can use him as a resource.

I'm glad now that I told him what I was feeling. I must have done it with some skill.

Maybe I should do something about my boredom. Why blame it all on him? It might be more interesting if I participated more.



The Process Role of the Trainer

The trainer understands that he is *not* engaging in clinical psychology. Deep-seated emotional problems are not resolvable through the training program. The process role of the trainer is directed at enabling participants to verbalize feelings that are being expressed unclearly and nonverbally. These feelings (on the part of both trainer and trainee) affect what goes on in the session, often in negative ways. The process role of the trainer focuses on exploring and clarifying feelings; on building supportive norms for open, spontaneous behavior; and on developing verbal communication skills. In such sessions, your best friend *will* tell you, and he will tell you in a clear, supportive, helpful way.

FEEDBACK

The *National Training Laboratories (NTL) Reading Book (1969)* describes "feedback" as:

> ...a way of helping another person to consider changing his behavior. It is communication to a person (or group) which gives that person information about how he affects...[you].

Chartier (1976) illustrates the concept of feedback in the following dialogue:

Joe: *Feedback is a process of correcting inaccuracy in communication.*

Sally: *Do you mean that feedback is simply a process of correcting errors?*

Joe: *Not exactly, although that is a part of what I mean. Feedback is a way of being sure that what I say to you is adequately perceived by you.*

Sally: *Now you're really getting complicated. What does "adequately perceived" mean?*

Joe: *Well, I think "adequately perceived" means that you understand the idea as I would like for you to understand it.*

Sally: *Oh, then you mean that feedback is a device for checking whether or not I got the idea you wanted me to get.*

Joe: *Exactly.*

Sally: *Do you think I used feedback effectively?...*

Criteria for Useful Feedback

According to the *NTL Reading Book* some criteria for effective feedback are:

1. *IT IS DESCRIPTIVE RATHER THAN EVALUATIVE.* Because you describe your own reaction, the receiver is free to use your feedback or not to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, the receiver's need to react defensively is reduced.

   For example:

   You have interrupted me three times in the last half hour is probably not something that a person really wants to hear, but it is more helpful than, *you are a rude, selfish s.o.b.*

2. *IT IS SPECIFIC RATHER THAN GENERAL.* To be told that one is *"dominating"* is probably not as useful as to be told that *"just now when we were deciding the issue, you continued to*

argue your point of view without responding to what others said, and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you."

3. *IT TAKES INTO ACCOUNT THE NEEDS OF BOTH THE RECEIVER AND GIVER OF FEEDBACK.* Feedback can be destructive when it serves only the giver's needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.

4. *IT IS DIRECTED TOWARD BEHAVIOR THAT THE RECEIVER CAN DO SOMETHING ABOUT.* When some shortcoming (over which he has no control) is pointed out, the receiver's frustration is often increased.

5. *IT IS SOLICITED, RATHER THAN IMPOSED.* Feedback is most useful when the receiver himself has asked others to tell him how his behavior affected them.

6. *IT IS WELL-TIMED.* In general, feedback is most useful when provided at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).

7. *IT IS CHECKED TO INSURE CLEAR COMMUNICATION.* By rephrasing the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind, the receiver ascertains that he understands what was said to him.

8. When feedback is given in a training group, both giver and receiver have the *OPPORTUNITY TO CHECK WITH OTHERS IN THE GROUP THE ACCURACY OF THE FEEDBACK.* Is one person's perception shared by others?

Feedback, then is a way of giving help; it is also useful for the individual who wants to learn how well his behavior matches his intensions.

Steps in Giving Feedback

Observing and Reporting

Most of us listen routinely neither seeing nor hearing all the data we need to give useful feedback. Moreover, we are accustomed to making quick, subjective judgments, as we do in conversation. Careful, objective watching and listening--good observation--is the key to the whole feedback process.

As is the case with observation, few people can consistently and accurately report on their feelings or other people's behavior.

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The most common reporting error is jumping from an observation to a conclusion (or interpretation) without checking the accuracy of the observation. The first task in giving feedback is to accurately describe observed data.

Leveling

After reporting the data accurately, tell the person how his behavior affected you. Attempt to be open, honest, specific, and descriptive. Try, however, not to overwhelm the person with your feedback. Check often to see if your message is as clear as you think it is.

Pitfalls in Giving Feedback

Making Assumptions (Interpretations)

In the absence of complete data, we make assumptions or inferences to fill in the blanks. (For example, if you are reading this article, I assume you're interested in communication principles though I have no visible data to support this. Likewise, I could infer that you are interested in training.) We make assumptions and inferences daily and, in fact, must do so because there simply isn't enough time or energy for each of us to explain everything, every day.

Assumptions and inferences, however, must be used with discretion. They must be made clear, and checked out. Unless assumptions are clarified and checked, your feedback may be inaccurate, leading you to an inaccurate conclusion.

Confronting

The confronting statement is something to avoid in giving feedback. Feedback should not be given primarily to "dump" or "unload" on another. If you feel you have to say something negative to the other person, then ask yourself who it is you are trying to "help." Feedback should not be given to accuse someone of being responsible for another person's behavior. Feedback should be a direct response from me to you about how your behavior affected me.

Conclusion

Giving effective feedback in part depends on an individual's values and basic philosophy about himself, his relationships with others, and other people's perceptions. Certain guidelines, however, can be learned and are valuable in helping people give and receive useful feedback.

In summary, the object of feedback is the transmission of *reliable* information so that the person receiving it has sufficient information to change his behavior, *if he elects to do so.*

Four questions to ask yourself before giving any feedback are:

1. *Can the receiver's behavior be changed or modified? (If the answer is "no" then don't go on.)*
2. *Are my observations both accurate and objective?*
3. *Can I clearly and accurately describe my observations?*
4. *How can I check with the receiver to insure clear communication?*

For a more in-depth discussion of interpersonal communication, the following topics are covered in other resource papers in your manual:

a. Visualizing the helping situation; things that make it difficult for us to give help; and things that make it difficult for us to receive help: *Feedback and the Helping Relationship.*

b. External vs group-shared feedback; who is responsible for the feedback; pressure to change vs freedom to change; motivation to hurt vs motivation to help; and coping with anger: *Giving Feedback: An Interpersonal Skill.*

c. Characteristics of the feedback process: *Aids for Giving and Receiving Feedback.*

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SELECTED READING IV-4

INTERACTION IN THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

This article was originally entitled "Feedback and the Helping Relationship" and has been adapted by special permission from Reading Book, 1969 Edition of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Sciences, associated with the National Education Association.

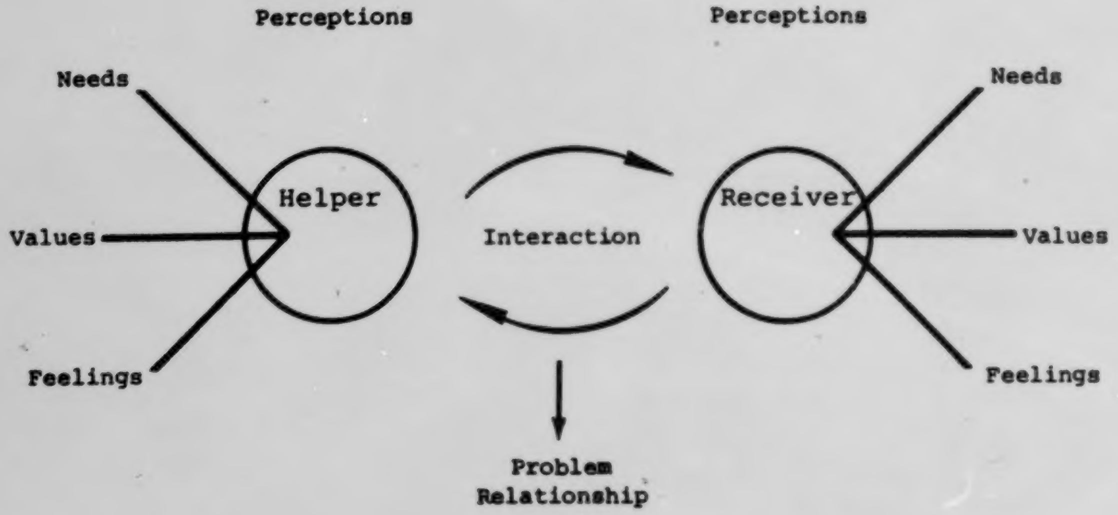
FEEDBACK AND THE HELPING RELATIONSHIP

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

Different names are used to designate the helping process, for example, counseling, teaching, guiding, training, educating, etc. These have in common the intent to influence (and therefore change) the individual who is being helped. The expectation is that the change in the receiver will be constructive and useful to him (i.e., will clarify his perceptions of the problem, bolster his self-confidence, modify his behavior (or help him develop new skills, etc.).

THE HELPING SITUATION

One way to look at the helping situation is to sketch it in the following manner.


Perceptions
Perceptions
Needs
Needs
Helper
Receiver
Values
Interaction
Values
Feelings
Feelings
Problem
Relationship

- The helping situation is dynamic, i.e., characterized by interaction that is both verbal and nonverbal.
- The helping person has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.
- The receiver of help has needs (biological and psychological), feelings, and a set of values.

- Both helper and the receiver of help are trying to satisfy certain of these needs.

- The helper has perceptions of himself, of the receiver of help, of the problem, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.)

- The receiver of help has perceptions of himself, of the helper, of the problem, and of the entire situation (expectancies, roles, standards, etc.).

- The interaction takes place in relation to some need or problem that may be external to the two individuals, interwoven with the relationship of the two individuals, or rooted in the relationship between the two individuals. Wherever the beginning point and the focus of emphasis is, the relationship between the two individuals becomes an important element in the helping situation as soon as interaction begins.

- His needs, values, and feelings, his perception of these, and his perception of the situation cause the receiver of help to have certain objectives.

- His needs, values, and feelings, his perception of these, and his perception of the situation cause the helper to have certain objectives.

- Both helper and receiver of help have power (influence) in the helping situation. However, it is the receiver of help who controls whether or not change actually takes place.

To depict the helping situation as above suggests its complexity. It is not easy to help another so that he will better his situation. Nor is it easy to receive help from another person, not the kind of help that allows us to deal with our problems more adequately. If we really consider the helping situation, we will be impressed with the magnitude and range of the problems involved and will also realize that we are always learning to give or receive help.

THINGS THAT MAKE IT DIFFICULT TO GIVE OR RECEIVE HELP

Let us consider some of the things that make it difficult for us to give help.

- Most of us like to give advice. Doing so suggests to us that we are important. We easily get caught in a telling role without testing whether our advice is appropriate to the abilities, the fears, or the powers of the person we are trying to help.

- If the person we are trying to help becomes defensive, we may try to argue or pressure him.
- We may confuse the relationship by only responding to one aspect of the other's problem. We may avoid recognition that the person counseled must see his own role as well as his own limitations.

Let us consider some of the things about us that make it difficult to receive help.

- It is hard to admit our difficulties even to ourselves. It may be even harder to admit them to someone else. We sometimes doubt that we can really trust the other person, particularly if the relationship is in a work or other situation and our standing could be affected. We may also be afraid of what the other person thinks of us.
- We may have struggled so hard to make ourselves independent that the thought of depending on another seems to violate something within us. Or we may have always looked for someone on whom to be dependent and we try to repeat this pattern in our relationship with the helping person.
- We may be looking for sympathy and support rather than for help in seeing our difficulty more clearly. When the helper tries to point out some of the ways we are contributing to the problem, we may stop listening. Solving a problem may mean uncovering some of the sides of ourselves that we have avoided or wished to avoid thinking about.
- We may feel our problem is so unique no one could ever understand it, certainly not an outsider.

To be fruitful, the helping situation needs these characteristics:

- Mutual trust
- Recognition that the helping situation is a joint exploration
- Listening, with the helper listening more than the individual receiving help
- Behavior by the helper that is calculated to make it easier for the individual receiving help to talk

MODULE VII

MODULE VII: FACILITATION: INTERVENING TO ENHANCE LEARNING **TIME:** 3 HOURS

GOALS

- To apply an organized procedure for determining when to intervene in a group's process
- To broaden intervention repertoires
- To practice intervening.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- List four conditions (or sources) for which trainers generally intervene in group process
- Define the elements of an effective intervention
- In response to case study descriptions, demonstrate a possible intervention that a trainer would make
- Identify problem situations that might require intervention and classify them as to condition or source.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET VII-1:

INTERVENTIONS WORKSHEET EXAMPLE

INDICATOR (Trainee Behavior)	AFFECT (Trainer's Assumption)	CONDITIONS				YES or NO	INTERVENTION FOCUS, IMMEDIACY, RESPONSIBILITY
		TRAINER	TRAINEE	ENVIRONMENT	CONTENT		
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*	*Trainer is being too wordy and unclear*				STOP HERE *To intervene or not?*	
Trainee is staring out window	*Excitement*			*Someone is streaking outside the training room*			
Trainee is staring out window	*Disgust*		*Trainee is talking again*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Fatigue*		*Trainee went to bed at 4:00 AM*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*				*Material is too technical and complex*		

WORKSHEET VII-1:

INTERVENTIONS WORKSHEET
(CONTINUED)

Sample

INDICATOR (Trainee Behavior)	AFFECT (Trainer's Assumption)	CONDITIONS				YES or NO	INTERVENTION FOCUS, IMMEDIACY, RESPONSIBILITY
		TRAINER	TRAINEE	ENVIRONMENT	CONTENT		
						STOP HERE To intervene or not?	

WORKSHEET VII-2
SMALL GROUP CASE STUDIES

PURPOSE:

- To identify whether trainer intervention is necessary.
- To decide focus of intervention.

MATERIALS:

Vignettes 1 through 3 (attached).

PROCEDURE:

1. Form small groups.
2. Each group member reads all of the cases.
3. As a group, discuss each vignette in turn.
    a. Identify the stage of group growth,
    b. Identify whether there is a condition that may require intervention,
    c. Decide whether trainer should intervene,
    d. Come up with a plan of action (or no action) or a sample interventive response.
4. Reconvene in large group and share summaries.
5. Discuss similarities and differences in action plans or interventive responses.

TIME:

40 minutes

VIGNETTE #1

Yesterday, the third day of training, a 1-hour segment of the course fell totally flat. At first, the trainers did not know what to make of it. The group had, to this point, been very responsive to the material. They were attentive during lectures, enthusiastic during discussions, and seemed to enjoy a videotape in which two people from a treatment agency acted out a counseling session to demonstrate three techniques being taught. In the segment that didn't work, participants were assigned roles--similar to those in the videotape--and asked to practice the same three skills. None of the participants was able to suspend his or her own identity sufficiently to get into the role play. Instead, there was just confusion, stiffness, and very little practice. Since the trainer was unable to figure out this phenomenon, she took 20 minutes of group time to discuss it. She discovered that this particular mix of participants from ___________________ found it impossible to pretend to be other than who they actually were, even though there was a similarity of setting and client problem, and that they could neither play roles nor make a skill transfer from assumed roles to their own roles.

Since the trainer anticipated a similar difficulty with the next three counseling skills to be taught the morning of Day 4 (through a similar sequence of activities), she took some time to think about what to do.

At what stage does the group appear to be? What might you do? Why? What would the focus be?

VIGNETTE #2

It is the morning of training Day 1. At first, the trainers thought things were going very well. People responded well to the icebreaker; they were lively and interested in each other. An overview of the course was well received, although the trainer felt a little unsure of trainee expectations of the course. The first didactic piece--a brief lecture--seemed flat. Things livened up a little as trainees discussed the content of the lecture and applied it to their own situations. The trainer was relatively silent during the discussion. However, there was not a lot of sharing; rather, each person who participated (a fair number said nothing) seemed to want to make a pronouncement, as if he or she knew more than anyone else and, certainly, more than the trainer. The atmosphere was growing increasingly tense; the trainer knew that he was growing increasing defensive.

The next segment was to be an experiential exercise involving some cooperation and trust. The trainer hesitated to go on with it, given the group atmosphere.

At what stage does the group appear to be? What might a trainer do? Why? What would the focus be?

VIGNETTE #3

This is the third day of a 4-day training event. By the end of the first day, the trainer was feeling almost relaxed. There had been a lot of silence (especially in the two small group activities after lunch), but, in the final activity following a film, there was a lively discussion in which everyone participated at some level. There was evidence of cohesiveness as a group and getting down to work in a serious, cooperative way. On Day 2, things went exceptionally smoothly. There were differences, but discussion of them led to exciting learning. One minor thing bothered the trainer: it was a mild tendency on the part of the group to make it clear that they didn't value the contribution of one member. That member, although by no means trying to hog the floor, did contribute ideas and examples that seemed somewhat trivial as compared to the level of contributions by others. He tended to be cut off, or his comments were not acknowledged; rather, the group hurried on to something else. The trainer felt that the situation was best left alone.

The third day began well enough. There was lively activity in the morning. In fact, the problem noted above seemed to lessen. The module covered received the highest rating to date. However, after a break with two short modules to go, things seemed to fall apart. There was tremendous restlessness and tension. The module opened with a brainstorm which received extremely sparce response. The ensuing discussion was filled with uncomfortable silence. The trainer was quite surprised and taken aback by the change in atmosphere.

At what stage does the group appear to be? What condition might require intervention? What would you do? What would the focus be? Why?

WORKSHEET VII-3:

INTERVENTIONS WORKSHEET

INDICATOR (Trainee Behavior)	AFFECT (Trainer's Assumption)	CONDITIONS				YES or NO	INTERVENTION FOCUS, IMMEDIACY, RESPONSIBILITY
		TRAINER	TRAINEE	ENVIRONMENT	CONTENT		
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*	*Trainer is being too wordy and unclear*				**STOP HERE** *To intervene or not?*	
Trainee is staring out window	*Excitement*			*Someone is streaking outside the training room*			
Trainee is staring out window	*Disgust*		*Trainee is talking again*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Fatigue*		*Trainee went to bed at 4:00 AM*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*				*Material is too technical and complex*		

WORKSHEET VII-3
(CONTINUED)

INDICATOR (Trainee Behavior)	AFFECT (Trainer's Assumption)	CONDITIONS				YES or NO	INTERVENTION FOCUS, IMMEDIACY, RESPONSIBILITY
		TRAINER	TRAINEE	ENVIRONMENT	CONTENT		
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*	*Trainer is being too wordy and unclear*				**STOP HERE** *To intervene or not?*	
Trainee is staring out window	*Excitement*			*Someone is streaking outside the training room*			
Trainee is staring out window	*Disgust*		*Trainee is talking again*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Fatigue*		*Trainee went to bed at 4:00 AM*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*				*Material is too technical and complex*		

WORKSHEET VII-3
(CONTINUED)

INDICATOR (Trainee Behavior)	AFFECT (Trainer's Assumption)	CONDITIONS				YES or NO	INTERVENTION FOCUS, IMMEDIACY, RESPONSIBILITY
		TRAINER	TRAINEE	ENVIRONMENT	CONTENT		
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*	*Trainer is being too wordy and unclear*				STOP HERE *To intervene or not?*	
Trainee is staring out window	*Excitement*			*Someone is streaking outside the training room*			
Trainee is staring out window	*Disgust*		*Trainee is talking again*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Fatigue*		*Trainee went to bed at 4:00 AM*				
Trainee is staring out window	*Boredom*				*Material is too technical and complex*		

REFERENCE SHEET VII-1
STAGES OF GROUP GROWTH REVISITED

The leader must continually re-evaluate the appropriateness of his/her interventions in relation to the maturity of the group. An insightful intervention is of no use if the group has not developed sufficiently and the members are not ready to respond constructively. A model of group growth is discussed here in order to help the leader choose appropriate interventions.

Several models of group development that include from two to eight or more stages are described in the literature on groups. Although it is true that groups develop systematically, many of the stages can occur at any time in the life of the group; therefore, the leader must remain flexible when applying a particular model.

The aim of all trainer intervention is to enable participants to fully take on responsibility for group climate and for reaching task goals.

During the initial phases of group growth, a phase when "I" concerns have not yet become "we" or "it" concerns, the trainer might intervene to bring about:

- Unfreezing behavior
- Cooperation
- Closeness/cohesiveness
- Effective feedback
- Risk-taking
- Norms and goals.

During the middle phases, the trainer might intervene around issues of:

- Working effectively
- Competition
- Conflict
- Information flow.

During any phase, intervention in problems of methodology (relevance of content) is appropriate.

During mature phases, the trainer might limit his/her intervention so that group members take over the responsibility of effective group functioning.

Intervention might occur around:

- Problem solving
- Interdependence.

The need to limit interventions must be emphasized at each stage. Although silence in a group can arouse anxiety, the anxiety often facilitates group growth. A leader should encourage group members to become responsible for the progress of the group. Too-frequent intervention can deprive the group members of the growth necessary to reach the closing stage and to become responsible for their own actions.

REFERENCE SHEET VII-2
SOME CONDITIONS THAT MIGHT REQUIRE INTERVENTION

FOCUS	BEHAVIOR
LEARNERS (Individual)	Nonconstructive role assumption Interruptions Freaking out Nonparticipation Boredom Inappropriateness (excessive self-revelation or emotional confrontation) Discomfort Noncooperation
METHODOLOGY	Out of time Too much time Exercise flops Too simple Too complex Environmental distraction
ENVIRONMENT (Group/interpersonal)	Conflict Argument Hidden agenda Restlessness Silence Defensiveness Noncooperation Discomfort (eye contact, posture, other nonverbals)
TRAINER	Positive trainer feelings Negative trainer feelings Mistaken expectations Mystification/demystification Lack of ability

REFERENCE SHEET VII-3
SHALL I MAKE THE INTERVENTION?

Before making the intervention, ask yourself these questions:

1. Have I examined my assumptions about why the indicator occurred?
2. What is the purpose of the intervention--what do I want it to accomplish? Is it relevant to the learning task?
3. Is it low risk or high risk? Does it have a chance of succeeding?
4. Is the timing appropriate for what's going on?
5. Does it fit my training style--will it succeed?
6. Is the intervention in harmony with the ground rules we've agreed upon?

REFERENCE SHEET VII-4
AVOIDING PROBLEMS

Here are some simple principles that are good to keep in mind in preventing problems or dealing with problems that do occur:

- Adequate preparation for a group is the best safeguard against serious problems.
- Make sure you know what the group expects of you, and let them know what you expect of the group.
- Be flexible in your planning; have alternate sequences of items on your agenda and substitutions in mind.
- Don't be too serious when you confront a problem. A little humor can make the situation much easier to handle.
- Make sure you have an understanding with the group members: they share the responsibility for the meeting. They are free to criticize and are responsible for letting the facilitator know what is going on and what their reactions are.
- Be honest with the group at all times.
- Try to anticipate problems you might have. Catching them early can help avoid them.

REFERENCE SHEET VII-5
SOME SAMPLE INTERVENTIONS WHEN THE LEARNER IS THE FOCUS
BYPASSES FOR ROADBLOCKERS

1. BULLDOZER: "It's got to go this way."

   Possible intervention: (We've agreed to abide by majority rule.)

2. MULE: "I won't let you!"

   Possible intervention: (Are we ready for a recess?)

3. RECOGNITION-SEEKER: "I need another medal."

   Possible intervention: (One medal per meeting is our limit.)

4. GROUP-SNATCHER: "If I'm funny enough they'll join me. I'll try clown antics and then a funny joke or ridicule."

   Possible intervention: (I sense you're not happy with our group goal.)

5. WINDY: "Now my twentieth point is..."

   Possible intervention: (Let's appoint a timekeeper to ring a bell after anyone has spoken more than 3 minutes.)

6. DRIFTER: "Have you heard about...that reminds me of..."

   Possible intervention (Let's appoint a subject-keeper to ring a bell when we get off the subject.)

7. MANIPULATOR: "I'll trick them into voting to have it my way."

   Possible intervention: (I don't think you're giving us your real reason. Could we look at your proposal below the surface?)

8. HELPLESS: "Someone do it for me--I'm so dumb."

   Possible intervention: (Why don't you just watch for a while until you gain confidence?)

9. SELF-CONFESSOR: "I'm no good--I'm always doing it wrong."

   Possible intervention: (You may be right.)

10. PARTISAN: "My side is the right side."

    Possible intervention: (You may be left.)

REFERENCE SHEET VII-6
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Cohen, A.M., and Smith, R.D. The Critical Incident in Growth Groups: A Manual for Group Leaders. Useful for both research and training purposes, the manual allows users to classify and compare interventions and to identify styles.

Freedman, A.M. Types of process interventions. The 1978 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators.

Lippitt, G. Selected guidelines for laboratory--group trainers. In: Modern Theory and Method in Group Training.

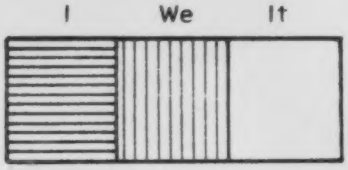
SELECTED READING VII-1

INTRODUCTION TO INTERVENTIONS

INTRODUCTION TO INTERVENTIONS

Definition of intervention:

- An intervention is an interruption of an ongoing training activity that influences the direction, content, behavior, and/or effect in a group.
- Interventions are usually made to help a group move from a nonproductive place to a more desirable one.
- An intervention can be made to speed up a task.
- An intervention can be made by a group member as well as by a trainer.
- Interventions are made to maintain the balance found in a mature group.



MATURITY

- Interventions usually occur for one of two reasons:
  - To maintain the group process as it relates to the agreed-upon task, or
  - To maintain the group process as it relates to the group's climate (mood, energy, etc.).

Therefore, agreement with group members in these two areas occurs ideally before the intervention:

- Goals--a specific task has been agreed upon by both trainer and trainees; and
- Group norms--ground rules have been developed to cover such concerns as:
  a) Trainer role(s)
  b) Participants' role(s)
  c) Feedback rules
  d) Confidentiality
  e) Time constraints

f) Environment (smoking, room temperature, presence of visitors, etc.).

- Define terms on the worksheet:
  - Indicator--the signal that something needs changing. For example, someone staring for a long time out the window.
  - Affect--Your interpretation of assumption of the feeling/mood that goes with that indicator. For example, you guess that the person staring out of the window is bored.
  - Condition--or Source--where you think the cause of the affect comes from. The source might arise from:

    The trainer--His presentation is monotonous, disjointed, unclear, etc.

    The trainee--He already knows the material, or maybe he's thinking of a date he had last night.

    The environment--Something exciting is happening outside the window.

    The content or methodology--Material being presented may be too complex, irrelevant to the task, etc.

Task Interventions

- Clarify agreed-upon goal(s).
- Suggest division of labor for subtasks needed to complete job.
- Observe how much time is left, or, if they didn't budget their time, suggest they do.
- Play devil's advocate; needle them.
- Review critical issues and/or decisions they face.
- Identify resources that might be useful.
- Refer to the importance of the group's filling the four leadership roles described in "Making Small Groups Work."
- Remind group members of why they need to complete their task, e.g., to get an earlier break, or it's a needed action before the next step can occur.
- Diagram or write out what has been spoken, to provide clarity and/or focus.

- Offer an analysis, summary, and/or clarification of material that has been covered so far.

- Others.

Climate Interventions

- Humor, aimed at easing tension.

- Silence, aimed at building tension or encouraging group participation.

- Trainer self-disclosure. Describe the feeling you're having and the source of that feeling. If the timing is O.K., discuss briefly such issues as trainee feelings about authority: for example, "kill the leader," or "leader as parent."

- Show empathy for the verbal or nonverbal affect (climate) in a group.

- Ask open-ended questions for clarification; e.g., "I'm confused--can anyone tell me what's going on?"

- Confront. (Usually a direct, blunt report of something that is occurring what has not been openly recognized.) Give data to back up any confrontation.

- Offer a story or analogy to illustrate a point. (This type of intervention is usually very good or very bad. Keep it relevant and sharp!)

- To intensify climate: move from a question to an exercise. Suggest an energizer.

- To cool down climate: ignore challenging questions. Suggest a break.

- Change environment by adjusting thermostat, rearranging chairs, moving indoors/outdoors.

- Others.

SELECTED READING VII-2

INTERVENTIONS

INTERVENTIONS*

From the trainer's point of view, an intervention requires three steps: 1) deciding what is happening in the group, 2) deciding what the leader would like to have happen in light of the group's developmental stage, and 3) doing something to encourage the change.

Perhaps a few examples of interventions will clarify what we mean. One common format for an intervention is: "I hear John saying...I wonder what the other members think of this?" Using this intervention the trainer can focus on a member's statement, try to interpret it for the group, and involve the other members in a discussion of it. Another intervention used frequently is questioning--bringing out a hidden issue and asking members to comment. A final example is the trainer self-disclosure, in which he/she reveals some of his/her feelings about a situation in order to change the discussion from content to feelings. This maneuver often effectively averts a conflict between the leader and a member; for example, the group leader may respond to an attack by a member for lack of direction: "I feel uncomfortable when you ask me to tell the group what to do. It sounds like you're not sure where we're going. I think it would be better if the members decided for themselves what direction the group should take."

Interventions occur at critical or "choice" points in group activity. At these points, effective interventions by the trainer can have a significant impact on group development. The trainer must have a framework for making intervention decisions. In the next section we examine some of the factors that affect these decisions.

WHAT TO OBSERVE

An unlimited number of events in the life of a group can prompt an intervention by the trainer. This section is not intended to list the different events, but to indicate process issues that often require some attention.

Several variables can be signals of the need for an intervention. Atmosphere is one important issue. Although some hostility or discomfort can be productive, a hostile atmosphere that exists for a long period can interfere with group growth. An intervention that provokes discussion about this atmosphere can help group members work through reasons for the discomfort.

---

*Adapted from Group Facilitator Training Package.

Another process variable that can be a key to interventions is the level of participation in group activity. A situation in which several people continue to dominate or withdraw might require intervention by the leader. On the other hand, variations from an established pattern of behavior also might require an intervention.

The trainer also should be aware that a discussion about an outside topic may be relevant to the group. For instance, a member might express hostility toward a group leader by talking about his/her boss at work. But the trainer should note that persistent small talk can be a way for members to avoid talking about group-related matters.

WHEN TO INTERVENE

Because interventions are a powerful technique, the trainer must know not only what to look for but also when to intervene. A few guidelines can help make the interventions effective and well-timed.

When the trainer observes some difficulties in the group's functioning, he/she may want to focus the group members' attention on these difficulties by making a process intervention. Because process-related problems affect every aspect of a group's functioning, attention to such issues is essential and can have multiple effects. Failure to consider ongoing process issues can inhibit group interaction and block the development of open communication.

Immediate goals the leader has for the group also can guide him/her in deciding when to intervene. Where these goals are not being met, an intervention may be required. For example, if the leader's goal in the early stages is to increase participation and only a few members are talking, interventions designed to bring silent members into the discussion may be appropriate. Setting goals before the group meets can help the leader to choose interventions.

The leader should be prepared for unsuccessful interventions even when he/she thinks they are well-timed and appropriate. The lack of response by the group often will indicate that the group isn't at the stage the leader thinks it is. This can be important information. The leader also should remember that groups are resilient--that an intervention that fails will not stop the group's growth and that the issue, if important, is likely to arise again.

Interventions should not be used too frequently. The leader should recognize that some tension and discomfort are necessary if the group is to grow. A group in which the leader intervenes often may become too dependent and never grow beyond the early stages.

The leader should remember that interventions made by a group member are more potent than those made by the leader. Such interventions involve risk taking by the member and can promote risk taking by other members and growth in the group.

The decision by the leader to remain silent during a critical point can be very productive. Silence can raise the tension level of the group and can prompt behaviors that would not occur in a group in which the leader tries to avoid tension. The leader should recognize, however, that remaining silent can be very difficult when group pressure increases.

TYPES OF INTERVENTIONS

The leader who has decided to intervene must choose the intervention that he/she thinks is most likely to accomplish his/her goal. An intervention can be considered in terms of three things: the focus of the intervention, the immediacy of the intervention, and the degree of responsibility for growth put on the group itself.

The Focus of the Intervention

The first dimension is the focus of the intervention: whether the leader's response is directed at the whole group, at interpersonal behavior, the methodology, or at individual behavior of participants or the trainer. By focusing on these different levels the leader can elicit very different responses. For instance, a group-focused intervention is likely to draw the attention of all the members of the group to the question of how the group is functioning. There is relatively little pressure on any single group member to respond. On the other end of the spectrum is the intervention focused on the individual. This approach often provokes some defensiveness from the individual and a decrease in group participation. Interpersonally oriented interventions are focused on the relationship of two or more group members and tend to elicit responses somewhere in between those discussed above.

The kind of focus chosen should reflect both the leader's opinion of what the group can tolerate and his/her immediate goals. For instance, in the early stages of group life, many leaders concentrate on group-oriented issues to help establish norms and develop an atmosphere conducive to growth. Because members often are very defensive at this stage, individual interventions probably should be used infrequently. As the group develops, of course, the goals change and the defensiveness decreases. The leader continually must reevaluate the appropriateness of his/her interventions.

Immediacy

Interventions may vary in other aspects. A second dimension is really a composite of several dimensions: whether the intervention focuses on content or process, whether the intervention deals with the "here-and-now" or with things that have occurred outside of the group or in the past, and whether the intervention is concerned more with facts or feelings. These dimensions are not identical, but they are so similar that we will think of them as one dimension, called immediacy.

Generally things are pretty dull when the group focuses on topics from the past (my trip last year, a movie I saw). Emphasizing here-and-now topics will help the group be productive and exciting (what I'm feeling, what just happened in the group, what will we do next). The advantages of focusing on the present are many:

1. The group members don't just talk about problems, they act them out. Members become "entangled" with each other and can work things out as they occur.

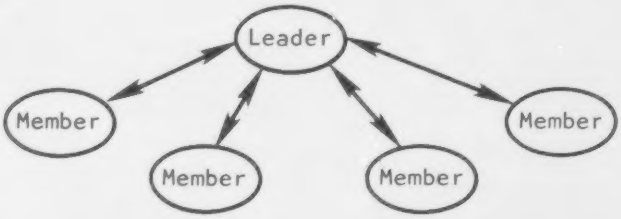
2. The learning that takes place is experiential.

3. Members learn to pay attention to what is going on at that moment. They become aware of their feelings as they occur.

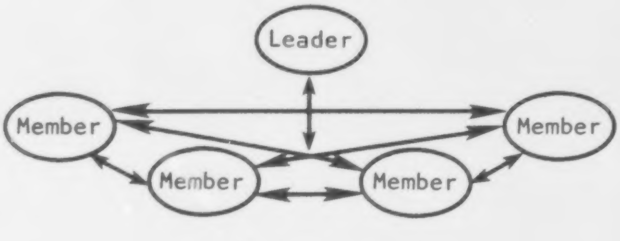
4. Process conflicts and issues affect the functioning of the group. Failure to consider these conflicts and issues may block the group's progress and inhibit open interactions. Keeping the focus on immediate material helps the group members work through issues together and increases the cohesiveness of the group in the long run.

The Group's Responsibility

Another important way in which interventions vary is the degree of responsibility for growth put on the group itself. If the group leader keeps the focus on him/herself and takes responsibility for the group, the group members will be denied a lot of opportunities for growth. At one end are groups where most of the interactions take place with the leader, like this:



At the other end are groups in which most of the transactions are among group members, the leader intervening when needed:



This format is more exciting for the members and offers a better opportunity for them to learn about themselves and the way they interact with others. It also reduces their dependence on the leader and opens the way for a greater variety of interactions.

Summary

Thus, we have four dimensions on which to look at interventions:

1. Focus:

   Learner (individual)/Environment (interpersonal-group)/
   Trainer/Methodology

2. Immediacy:

Content	Process
There-and-then	Here-and-now
Facts	Feelings

3. Responsibility:

Leader takes responsibility	Group members are responsible for the group
Encourages leader-member interactions	Encourages member-to-member interactions

SELECTED READING VII-3

THE CRITICAL-INCIDENT APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP INTERVENTION IN TRAINING GROUPS

by

Arthur Martin Cohen
Robert Douglas Smith
Georgia State University
Atlanta, Georgia

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INTRODUCTION

The problem of effectively shaping group growth and development through verbal intervention has been a continuing source of concern to both researchers and practitioners. There is little argument that the essence of the process by which any group develops its potential is the progressive modification of ideas and behavior through verbal interaction. When an idea is introduced spontaneously by one of the participants in a group, other members may suggest an extension, a different emphasis, or perhaps the approval or rejection of the point. Thus, there is an idea in the making, a preliminary statement changed by the work of the group through verbal modification until it represents, more or less adequately, their cumulative, developing, mutual point of view.

A vital cornerstone in the acceptance, rejection, or clarification of an idea is the group leader. It should be pointed out, as Bonner (1959) has done, that the leader alone does not bring about changes in the group or in its members, but that these changes are the results of a multitude of attempted leadership acts. However, while the group leader does not primarily control others, he does initiate verbal and behavioral responses that strongly influence others to perform certain acts that shape the group as a whole. Personality variables--intelligence, physical characteristics, and the like--which have played a very prominent role in studies of leadership in the past do not by themselves account for leadership impact in human groups (Bonner 1959). We believe that these characteristics induce desired behavior in others when the member or trainer who possesses them shares the values of the group and is able to respond with leadership acts at the appropriate moment.

All things being equal, the group leader stimulates growth and development through appropriate responses to certain vital situations. This is a field-dynamic view in which the leader is seen as a center of high potential in a social field at a particular critical period of time. At some point during the development or culmination of an idea, the group leader is faced with critical situations or incidents and has to choose a method of responding. Some of the incidents may be trivial; others are crucial to the development of group solidarity, productivity, and direction of movement. The productive group leader must have at his fingertips an effective means of dealing with these "critical incidents" and must choose a good intervention response. This prescription would apply to both task-oriented and process-oriented groups.

Many investigators dealing with the issue of trainer interventions have assumed that maximum group progress is somehow a function of consistence in trainer behavior-attitude, or a function of "sensitivity" judgment (Bach 1966, Berzon and Solomon 1966). Frequently the present authors have referred to books ostensibly devoted to aiding the beginning group leader in identifying and handling the issues that arise in group interactions, only to have them fall short of providing helpful technological training. While each of these books offers many intelligent and well thought-out conceptualizations about the small group, few are of much help in the concrete here-and-now, give-and-take of group interaction. It is not only important to know, for example, that "maintenance and building problems, as they emerge, exercise a prepotent demand upon the energies of the T-Group" (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne 1964, p. 226), but it is also of equal importance to know how to respond concretely at a particular point to a hostile, confused or otherwise involved group member.

We disagree with the view that "simply being oneself" is both necessary and sufficient for effective group leadership. First, there are many instances when being spontaneous in the group may conflict with what is best for the group. Secondly, as Fiebert (1968, p. 835) has stated, "To the leader himself the group process is an involving challenge, one in which *he attempts to respond selectively to a myriad of interpersonal* (italics added) cues in his effort to crystallize the basic themes of the group and its members." Even if the trainer acts 'naturally," he may not be able to choose an appropriate response to appropriate cues. There are many situations, it is granted, when it would be wise *not* to respond; but in each of these instances the choice should be based on a rational decision, and not result from a lack of knowledge concerning the appropriate response to make. Fiebert (ibid., p. 837) discusses this point:

> It seems to this author that with either rationale of group leadership, directive or spontaneous, the leader presents a value orientation which may be contrary to participants' expectations. The critical question, then, is not which value orientation one offers but rather the pragmatic issue of which class of trainer interventions is more effective in group development. At this point it seems a philosophical question dissolves into an empirical one.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

Research studies relating group experiences to the behavior of training-group leaders were given a firm base by Bradford, Gibb, and Benne (1964, pp. 136-137). They discuss "crucial situations which test the trainer's diagnostic skill, his ability to integrate his own actions into the group process, the extent to which his own personality presents problems to the group, his ability to make intervention decisions, the consistency of his behavior, and its congruence with his beliefs." The above authors then present six episodes which reveal a number of "crucial situations" to which the group leader replies and notes the effect on the group. These six episodes would be more instructive if embedded in a systematic technological approach to leader intervention, with a focus upon specific outcomes and the probabilities of certain desired outcomes of specific interventions. The beginning group leader would find the episodes more helpful if leader responses could be related to one another more specifically, with discussions and evaluation of the alternatives available to the leader.

An approach of a more engineering nature in a related area is the "leaderless" or instrumented training group described by Berzon and Solomon (1966). In their studies, each intervention is programmed for introduction at an appropriate moment and, most importantly, the effects of that intervention upon the group are evaluated. Other researchers (Miles 1960, p. 303) have defined the problem areas as "action skills: the ability to intervene effectively in ongoing situations in such a way as to maximize personal and group effectiveness and satisfactions." Yet another study

(French, Sherwood, and Bradford 1966, p. 218) has mentioned such important findings as "a person's self-identity is influenced by the opinions that others have of him which they communicate to him and that the more that is communicated, the more change there is in self-identity." This last study may be taken as representative of many such studies in the group area in which feedback and leader interventions are spoken of in general terms as being important. However, there is no systematic presentation of what feedback specifically entails. Such studies offer inadequate help to the beginning group leader who, when faced with a critical situation, needs to know more than that he must now deal with a "maintenance issue" or a "counter-dependency" problem.

Although other very good reviews of the literature on small group work have appeared (Buchanan 1965, House 1967, Stock 1964), the most recent work by Campbell and Dunnette (1968) has special relevance to this chapter. In their comprehensive review (p. 97), they point out that

> research concerning the relative contributions of specific technological features of the T-Group is also sparse. For example, there are no systematic studies examining the influence of differences in trainer personality and/or style on the outcomes achieved by participants. Case reports and anecdotal evidence are all that exist.

In indicating needed research approaches, these same authors single out seven major research deficits (ibid, p. 100), one of which is especially important in our discussion:

> It is imperative that the relative contributions of various technological elements in the T-Group method be more fully understood. It is surprising indeed that essentially no research has been done on the differential effects of changes in the trainer role in spite of frequent allusions in the crucial role played in a T-group by the trainer's behavior. Questions concerning the optimal procedures for giving feedback, for enhancing feelings of psychological safety, and for stimulating individuals to try new behaviors should also be investigated. This chapter specifically addresses itself to this last point.

Extensive narrative accounts of what happens in a training group are given in Klaw (1961), Weschler (1959), and Kuriloff and Atkins (1966). The important fact is that there are certain basic problems of issues invariably common to all these groups. While we recognize the uniqueness of each group, we are also impressed with the emergence of recurrent and consistent critical situations. In essence, we are proposing a conceptual model of group growth and development based upon the evolution of critical incidents, and with both descriptive and prescriptive properties. Descriptively, this model provides a framework for recognizing the salient features of an ongoing group process and places important events in an ordered perspective. Prescriptively, the model presents a systematic approach to effective group leadership through appropriate and effective interventions. The utilization of a model which offers both of these advantages would seem to be a step nearer to the prediction and control of behavior toward a desired group goal.

If the assumption is valid that the majority of groups have to deal at one time or another with certain basic common problems (that is, critical incidents), then an attempt should be made to systematize and deal with these issues to promote effective group development. Within each of these critical situations, a number of alternative intervention responses should be at the group leader's fingertips. Which one he utilizes--or whether he chooses to respond at all--is his decision, based upon his particular leadership style and the needs of the group.

In this chapter we attempt to: (1) present the concept of a critical incident as a way of describing and ordering group phenomena, (2) propose a critical incident model in outline form, and (3) present three critical incidents, in their entirety, to illustrate the model. In each critical incident example we present critical situations commonly found in training groups and offer several alternatives to the beginning group leader. In addition, we ask the reader to look at the nature of interventions as a three-dimensional "intervention cube," which is discussed in some detail later in this chapter. Finally, we offer an overview of this "technological" approach, summarizing the significant points and indicating some important future research areas.

THE CONCEPT OF CRITICAL INCIDENT

A critical incident is defined as the confrontation of a group leader with one or more members, in which an explicit or implicit opinion, decision, or action is demanded of that leader. It may also be observed conversation, a confrontation among members, an event taking place, or a period of silence. The essential property of a critical incident is that the phenomenon is judged important enough by a group leader to consider, consciously and explicitly, a decision to act in a way assumed to have an important impact on the group. This implies that the group leader is faced with a number of "choice points" or alternatives in both the content and style of possible responses. If the final choice of response is appropriate and effective, group growth and development may be facilitated. On the other hand, if the choice of response is inappropriate the group may move into nonproductive areas or be unable to perform. With each choice of response, the group leader simultaneously constructs alternate universes and opens new paths of group movement while inhibiting others. The fact that certain effects are likely to follow each intervention choice should motivate an attempt to systematize intervention decisions and study their consequences.

The evolution of the critical incident concept began with the observation that there are critical situations that, with variations, emerge and repeat themselves in different groups as they develop. Examples of critical incidents were collected from two years of direct observation and recording, especially from tapes of training groups. These incidents were then examined to determine the most general, relevant, and problematical situations faced by the beginning group leader. The situations were fitted into a general framework that specified such parameters as climate of group, number of sessions, specific events that led up to the group leader's response, as well as level, type, and intensity of response intervention. As a final step, nearly sixty critical incidents were checked for frequency of occurrence by advanced graduate students beginning their first experience as training-group leaders. Each of these graduate students reported the occurrence of specific critical incidents as they emerged, as well as the frequency with which certain specific critical incidents clustered together. In this manner, the critical incident approach was used both as a research tool and as a teaching and training device.*

THE PROPOSED MODEL

After a great deal of evaluation, a general framework for reporting critical incidents was constructed. The brief, overall outline of this model will be presented first, followed by a detailed discussion of each of its parts. In conjunction with the model, we propose several conceptual frameworks to strengthen our technological approach to interventions.

The proposed critical incident model is a way of arranging events in sequence, from those that led up to and immediately preceded some critical incident to those that identify the consequences of certain interventions. It is an attempt to identify and understand the important influence of each of these parts upon group members for their growth and development as a group. In essence, we are asking the group leader to organize his perceptual framework around a model that observes events as they occur, evaluates them appropriately, and decides upon one or more specific interventions. Thus, group movement becomes a series of critical incident sequences, not just a group of isolated or unrelated occurrences.

The proper use of this model will allow the group leader to identify his particular style of intervention and the patterns of response characteristic of different theoretical approaches and should permit direct comparisons as to the effectiveness of various types of interventions.

CRITICAL INCIDENT MODEL

I. Specify the context within which the event occurs.

   A. Approximate stage of the group: Specify session number and phase of the group, such as beginning, middle, end.

   B. Climate of the group as it relates to the critical incident: Specify whether dependent, counter-dependent, unified, silent, hostile, etc.

   C. Brief description of person(s) involved with each other and/or the group leader: Specify quiet, loud, passive, etc.

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*The final refinement of techniques of effective leader interventions in groups using the critical incident model is found in A.M. Cohen and R.D. Smith, The Critical Incident Approach: Leadership Intervention in Small Groups (Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co., 1971). In this book, the critical incident model, using some sixty critical incidents, is integrated with a theory of interventions and a theory of group growth and development. In addition, the critical incidents used are cross-indexed with those reported by over eighty other authors representing an extensive variety of approaches to interventions in groups. Comprehensive and annotated surveys and analyses are presented of the literature on interventions in groups and on the works of over eighty theorists of group growth and development.

II. Specify the behavior and/or conversation that led up to and immediately preceded the choice point.

Group Member A: "I think ... should answer me."
Group Member B: "I agree, and furthermore ..."

III. Describe the critical incident choice-point situation as you perceive it. Specify both the surface issue and the underlying issue.

A. Surface issues.

B. Underlying issues.

IV. Specify the level, type, and intensity of the intervention responses.

A. Level of intervention: group, interpersonal, individual.

B. Type of intervention: conceptual, experiential, structural.

C. Intensity of intervention: low, medium, high.

V. Specify the results of the intervention on the group.

A. The intended directional movement of the group by the group leader.

B. Immediate group response to interventions such as silence, agreement, further developing incidents, etc.

Each of the sections of the critical incident model will now be considered in greater detail. Sections one through three are concerned with identifying the elements involved in the emergence of a specific critical incident. They require little explanation. Section three specifies the desirability of the group leader recognizing both the surface issue and the underlying issue. Often what is being said by group members may be masking other more important underlying cognitive or emotional issues. For example, an "intellectual" argument about man's "rationality" may actually mask a struggle for power and possibly on a deeper level an attempt to control sexual impulses.

GENERAL NATURE OF INTERVENTIONS

We distinguish between two basic types of theory interventions: the Planned Theory Intervention (PTI) and the Spontaneous Theory Intervention (STI). A PTI may be carried out at any time in a group session. At the beginning, it usually has two main functions. First, it provides continuity between sessions which enables the group leader to shape at least the initial action of the group. Second, it facilitates and enhances the mood setting when a particular group climate is judged to be desirable. A PTI introduced appropriately in the middle of a group session usually centers on "what is going on right now" and brings theoretical concepts to bear upon the phenomena to underscore, emphasize, or direct attention to them. When a PTI is used at the end of a group session, its purpose is to provide a framework for the events that have taken place, to compare and contrast regularities between groups, and/or, most importantly, to direct thinking toward important future issues.

Some caution must be exercised, however, in that excessive PTI during the closing period of a group may create a situation in which the trainer does too much work for the group or brings premature closure of issues still needing examination. This may cause the leader to acquire the role of a "professional summarizer." At its worst, such paternalism would give group members the feeling that the leader starts them and ends them, and that all that is necessary for the group is to perform in some active way. Independent choice and responsibility would be restricted. Some examples of PTI topics are trust, group decision-making, leadership, deviance, and feedback.

A spontaneous theory intervention (STI) is often referred to as "on-the-spot theory" and is a reaction to immediate ongoing events in the group. It is generally quite short in duration since any intervention that becomes extensive tends to effectively stop the action of the group. An STI usually has two basic parts: 1) a brief observation of ongoing events, and 2) a brief tie-in between the observation and theory. The STI is effective in a number of areas among which are communicating the trainer's awareness of and involvement with the group, sharpening and defining the role of the trainer as a capable resource, putting the current problem in focus, and/or pointing the way to a larger question to which the group may need to be sensitized. The STI may involve any of the topics identified under PTI. An STI example is illustrated by the following situation: The group leader may note that member "X" frequently speaks up immediately following a statement by member "Y." These statements by "X" are invariably critical of "Y" and his suggestions. The group leader may observe this ongoing process and give a brief STI on the problems of a struggle for leadership and on the individual need for influence in the group.

Both the PTI and STI are part of a matrix consisting of the level of intervention--whether the focus is group, interpersonal, or individual; the type of intervention--whether the intervention is conceptual, experiential, or structural, and the intensity of intervention--the degree to which choice of response is directed at the emotional center of the target issue on a continuum from low to high. The three response dimensions of level, type, and intensity are conceptualized as an Intervention Cube.

The level of intervention is the target to which the group leader directs his intervention. He may choose to direct his remarks to the group as a whole, to a relationship in the group that has an interpersonal focus, or to one member on an individual one-to-one basis.

The type of intervention requires that the group leader choose between three major modes, or a combination of them, in which to express his intervention. In the conceptual mode, the group leader might simply say, "We've had a number of ideas tonight, and all of them seem directly concerned with ways to reach an agreement." He thereby pulls together major concepts and trends. The experiential mode is usually a reporting of direct experience concerning current, ongoing behavior, as in "I'm feeling pretty tense and angry over what just occurred." The structural mode is the deliberate use of planned structured activities, such as sensitivity skill exercises, which focus attention upon surface or underlying issues and the related emotional involvement.

The above framework can be useful in investigating and categorizing the different styles of leadership intervention. An inexperienced group leader might prefer to make "C-G" interventions, composed on conceptual inputs at the group level in the form of a PTI, while avoiding the "E-Ind." or direct experiential confrontation with individual members. Further research might reveal that this hypothetical group leader emphasizes primarily the cognitive elements of group growth and development, as revealed in a progressive step-pattern of "C-G," "C-Int.," "C-Ind." with only a few "C-G" interventions. Awareness of an "intervention style" may lead the group leader to adopt a more healthy mix of interventions as well as allow him to experiment with new styles and to chart his progress.

We assume that the effective group leader does not operate primarily on a session-to-session spontaneity basis, but rather employs some concept of group growth and development and acts in accordance with his beliefs that some group directions are more productive than others. Presumably the group leader functions within a framework that includes one or more theoretical models of group development.

Thus the importance of appropriate design strategy cannot be stressed too highly, since the impact of certain knowledge, skills, and values depends largely upon both how and when the interventions are introduced. A wide variety of possible techniques, tools, structural, and instrumental approaches may be used by the trainer to introduce topics. Feedback, for example, can be introduced by modeling, through a PTI, through skill exercises, and so on. A design strategy may be thought of as a describable and consistent posture, orientation, or "set" with which to respond using the appropriate skills and tools. While design is acknowledged as important by a number of investigators (Berzon and Solomon 1966, Bradford, Gibb, and Benne 1964, Miles 1960) little attempt has been made to systematize design factors as they affect intervention decisions in groups.

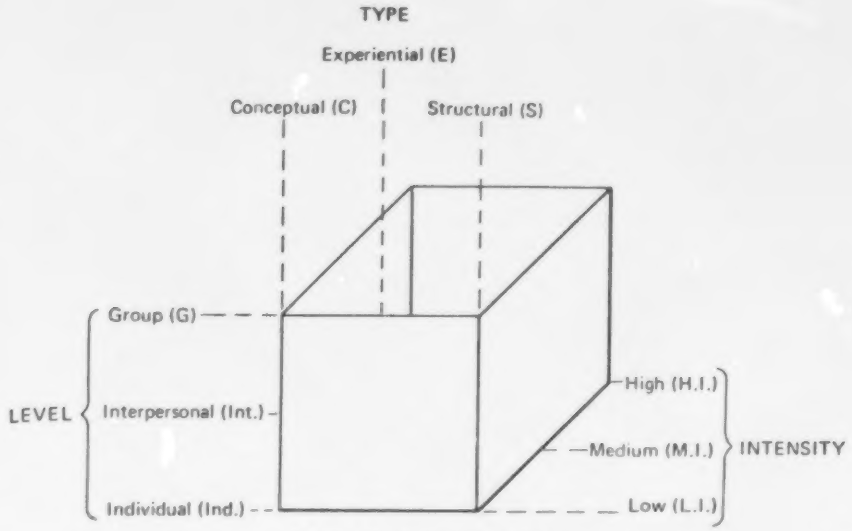

Fig. 1 The Intervention Cube.

IDENTIFYING AND RESPONDING TO CRITICAL INCIDENTS

The primary requirement is that the group leader be aware of the existence of critical incidents and be able to recognize their appearance, for his behavior is most crucial to the group at the point when critical incidents occur. A group leader functions most effectively when he asks himself the following questions: (1) When should I intervene? (2) What are the surface and underlying issues involved? (3) What level, type, and intensity of interventions are appropriate? (4) What are the probable effects upon the group of a chosen intervention?

The appropriate time for intervention would seem to be whenever a critical incident is occurring. Other than this, there is no specific time. Many interventions may be made during one session, and few, or none at all in others. In our prescriptive approach, no generally applicable guideline exists regarding a decrease or increase in the number of trainer interventions which should take place. Individual member participation will increase over a period of time and different members will assume some of the functions of the trainer, summarizing, clarifying, and so on. Thus the leader should be active primarily in those areas that are not handled well by the group members at that specific time. The leader's role will acquire different qualitative functions as the group moves to greater depths of expression and relationship and as the interactional competence of members increases.

Our theoretical orientation toward group development is that interventions made in the beginning stages of group life will tend, and generally ought to be, more superficial and general. Often group members report they recall little that was said by the group leader during the initial sessions. They may distort or confuse what they do recall.

As the group progresses and as a climate of trust and sharing begins to build, interventions should be on a more interpersonal level and deal increasingly with underlying motivations and the recognition of feelings. During the latter part of this middle phase there will probably be a noticeable increase in the number of experiential one-to-one encounters among individuals, and significant learnings will tend to take place at the interpersonal level. Interventions at the end of a group life should tend once more to deal with topics at the group level but in a manner that uses intrapersonal expressions of feelings to blend both task and maintenance issues.

Obviously not all group leaders would invariably follow this pattern, and there are certainly many ways in which different group movements may achieve the same ends. We are suggesting, however, that interventions have differential consequences and effectiveness depending upon the stage of the group. It would seem awkward and ineffective, for example, to begin a group with a progressive series of interventions oriented toward one-to-one encounters, especially with a group of strangers who have had no prior group experience. This might well "freeze" or immobilize the group. Yet this very same approach may be highly effective in motivating a group when appropriately introduced at a later time.

A point often overlooked in the choice and use of an appropriate intervention is the fact that the trainer sets the standard for the level and type of responses by group members. If the expression of feelings is encouraged by the trainer's direct example, there will be an expectation of shift in the group in the same direction. If this is attempted inappropriately or prematurely, however, the group may react by rejecting this level of response and moving to a less threatening (frequently a conceptual) level. In reality, there is usually a mixture of reactions to a shift in level and type of leader interventions. Some members welcome the movement; others prefer to remain for a time at some other level, usually one less demanding or threatening. The group must be allowed to discover a means of using all its resources regardless of their varied levels of responding. Trying out different levels and member roles is a part of the self-exploration process and should be encouraged.

It is important for the group leader to attempt to understand and clarify group issues and the motivations of group members if he is to recognize the "role-pressure" being put upon him. The beginning trainer may be especially influenced and his effectiveness decreased by the expression of negative feelings or aggressively critical statements directed at him. The inability to recognize or the refusal to deal with certain underlying issues may lead to an implicit assumption on the part of the group that certain criticisms are "correct." On the other hand, to react to criticism with defensiveness toward the group may lessen the group leader's effectiveness. Using relevant critical incidents of a stressful nature in a role-playing situation would help prepare the beginning group leader for such experiences.

APPLICATIONS OF THE CRITICAL INCIDENT MODEL

Three critical incidents have been chosen for their relevance to the beginning, middle, and end phases of group growth and development. Each critical incident is preceded by direct references from the training-group literature in order to illustrate the generality and frequent appearance of these issues. These three critical incidents follow the critical incident model introduced earlier. The presentations include discussions of the primary issues involved, the level, type, and intensity of possible interventions, the optional use of an appropriate sensitivity exercise as a structural intervention, and a consideration of the implications for the group. For learning purposes, we usually provide at least two relevant response alternatives for any given critical incident. Space limitations, however, prevent a consideration of more than one class of response alternatives for the purpose of this chapter.

CRITICAL INCIDENT I

The following type of critical incident is very likely to occur curing the first group session. This has been noted in the literature (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne 1964, pp. 138-139) as follows:

> After a few seconds of silence someone else very mildly suggested that perhaps they might introduce themselves, adding that this seemed customary in groups of his experience.
>
> A number of members said that they wanted to know who others were--their names and where they came from, where they worked, and what their titles or job descriptions were. . . .
>
> 'When we did accomplish something, even though it was only introducing ourselves, you've indicated you didn't like what we did. If you don't like what we do, tell us what to do; otherwise you have no right to criticize us.'

I. Specify the context within which the event occurs. This is the first group session. The general climate of the group is a mixture of awkwardness and anxiety.

Members are unsure of their direction and unfamiliar with one another. Dependency statements have been made to the group by particularly anxious members, but there has been little interaction. One group member (A) who appears aggressive has apparently decided to initiate some action, as he begins speaking in a loud, authoritative voice.

II. Specify the behavior and/or conversation that led up to, and immediately proceded, the choice point.

Group Member A:	"Well, I think we should know something about ourselves. Let's go around the room and tell something about ourselves. You know, introduce ourselves, and tell where we are from."
Group Member B:	"That's a great idea. Why don't you start?"

The group picks up this idea and continues until everyone is finished. It is now the leader's turn and everyone is watching him expectantly. What are the issues involved and the response alternatives available to him as a leader?

III. Specify the level, type, and intensity of intervention response. The level of intervention for this particular beginning phase is almost always at the group level unless the trainer is confronted by some particular individual. The type of intervention provides the group leader with one or more alternatives. Choosing the experiential type of response, the group leader may simply remain quiet, looking comfortably at the group, frustrating their expectations, and allowing the anxiety to build within the group. It is probably, however, that this will result in a group member finally asking, "Tell us a little bit about yourself, so we can get to know you." It may be seen from this example that the selection of a certain alternative (in this instance, remaining silent) leads to a "sequence of chained critical incidents" in which the future behavior of the group may be predicted by the nature of the response just made.

Another response intervention might involve the sharing of feelings. The group leader begins: "I'd like to share some of my thoughts and feelings with you about how I feel right now. I'm feeling pretty boxed in and a little uncertain as to how I should reply." (In this way he is sharing feelings and modeling behavior). "On the one hand, I hear you asking for some straight information and I'm certainly willing to give that, but I also seem to hear us trying to feel each other out, to locate our personal boundaries and limitations, to categorize and pigeon-hole. It seems to relieve the pressure and give us a direction." (This is a general but superficial interpretation of both content and underlying motivation). "I wonder if the rest of you feel that you really know each other that much better now?" (Here we have a movement from the experiential to the group conceptual level, encouraging sharing of ideas about the process just finished.)

The level of intensity is almost always very low during this particular interchange and at this stage of the group. On the structural level, the group leader, as a resource person, has the option at this point of introducing a structural sensitivity exercise--a sharing dyad (see below) is appropriate--an activity that encourages familiarity and cohesion among members. The trainer's decision to use this exercise will be determined by a knowledge of individual group members and their needs, the speed with which he would like to see the group consolidate its gains, and the importance he attaches to structural interventions. A typical and appropriate structural intervention exercise is described in its entirety at this point to illustrate the potentially increased effectiveness of combining a variety of trainer approaches.

The sharing dyad. Although it may be utilized at any stage, the sharing dyad is most useful in the beginning stages of a group to build trust and break down resistances to intimacy. In the beginning, members usually find it easier to express themselves with one other person than with the whole group. Group members are first paired by any convenient method forming a dyad. These dyad meetings usually last from ten to fifteen minutes, depending upon the leader. Each member of the dyad is told to remain silent while one member speaks, and then to reverse the process. Both members of the dyad face the same direction, that is, one member of the pair always sits with his back to the other member who first speaks. The leader may state, "I want you both to get to know each other as fully as possible, to try to understand the other, to learn how to give and take from your partner, and how to produce creatively with him. Tell each other what you feel is most important and needs to be said both about yourself and your partner." The objective is to provide an opportunity for each participant to learn to express himself and to receive the expressions of another in such a way that a relationship can be built.

Following the dyad meeting, it has been found productive to bring two dyads together forming a group of four people, and to repeat the exercise, doubling the members in the groups until the entire group is formed again on a more trusting and freer interpersonal level.

CRITICAL INCIDENT II

A second and frequently occurring critical incident offers a prototype for recognizing and dealing with conflicts and differences between group members. These conflicts occur throughout the life of the group, even though this critical incident is primarily directed at the middle period of group life. While there are different types of conflicts involving different levels and issues, several fall into this general model. One example (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne 1964) is the following:

> Most T-Groups, within three of four sessions, face a sharp cleavage. . . . This cleavage grows slowly, usually comes to a crisis, and is resolves sufficiently for the group to move ahead--although it is never solved for all membbers (p. 143).
>
> Thus the cleavage between those who wanted assigned topics and those who were interested in exploring behavior deepened and widened. . . . It was at this point that the group session came to an indecisive and frustrating conclusion (p. 147).

I. Specify the context within which the event occurs. It is becoming evident that there is a widening split between those group members who support task issues and involvements and those who endorse maintenance issues dealing directly with emotions. From the nature of the statements being given, there is a great deal of hostility and an inability to see the importance or relevance of the other's position. Following a particularly heated exchange, the group has fallen into a frustrating silence.

II. Specify the behavior and/or conversation that led up to and immediately preceded the choice point.

Group Member A:	"I just can't understand why we should keep getting hung up all the time on personal or emotional issues when we need to work on establishing an agenda and reaching our goals."
Group Member B:	"I don't think an agenda has anything to do with what I want from this group. I can't understand your attitude at all. The only thing that really matters ultimately is our personal feelings."

Various other group members give support to each of these positions and express confusion about opposing stands. The group now lapses into uneasy silence. What are the issues involved and the response alternatives available?

III. Specify the level, type, and intensity of the intervention. First, it is obvious that the leader always has the option of remaining silent, of not responding. This in itself is a type of intervention designed to raise the general anxiety level of the group and sharpen the task-maintenance conflict. However, if the leader judges that his continued silence would not be productive, and that the group should first be made aware of the value of integrating and utilizing the two concepts of task and maintenance, he may intervene along the following lines:

"I'd like to offer you a few of my observations. For the past thirty minutes, I've been sitting here feeling more and more frustrated, maybe even feeling trapped or experiencing a sense of futility. I wonder how many of you feel the same way?" (This is an experiential sharing and reflection of mood of the group at the group level, an invitation to the group members to share what they all have in common--a sense of frustration.) "Some of the concerns we're expressing here--working on tasks versus working on people--are the same concerns that man, and groups of men, have always struggled with to create our own community, here and now." (This is a conceptual input at the group level, identifying the issues and goals.) "I'd like to suggest at this point an exercise which may help us to understand and manage our mutual concerns better." (This introduces a structural sensitivity exercise chosen both to emphasize the concerns of the group at this point and to point to ways of coping better with the issues).

The structural intervention may help the leader guide the group to an integrated approach to group functioning. The degree of intensity is typically medium. The leader should, by the tone and nature of his intervention, both reflect and express the cognitive and emotional issues involved. A group leader who plays down the emotional issues involved would deliver an intervention of very low intensity. Another leader may prefer to underscore the emotionality of the split in the group and consequently would choose a high-intensity intervention.) The following structural intervention would be appropriate for the critical incident.

Verbal and nonverbal communication dyad. Often when people try to express their feelings about each other verbally or to explain themselves or some situation, they simply cannot "understand" each other. This occurs when people are inarticulate, when they have strong but hidden conflicts about their feelings, when they are actually not aware of what their feelings are, or when they use words defensively to obscure feelings. In these situations two approaches may be helpful. The first involves verbal interaction and the second involves nonverbal behavior. It is often most effective to use both, in the following order.

In the first method each participant is asked to stop talking about his own bias and try to state his adversary's position as clearly and sympathetically as possible. Usually the two will exchange seats to carry this out. Initial attempts are often caricatures; it is important to insist that the opposing argument be stated as if it were a reasonable position. This forces the antagonists to think of the merits of their opponents' arguments. The second method of clarifying an interaction is to ask the two participants to continue to communicate their own positions without using words. These two exercises should help members recognize the legitimate status of both positions--the importance of ideas and feelings, and the value of getting a task accomplished and enabling feelings to be expressed so that people are able to work together.

CRITICAL INCIDENT III

This final critical incident seems to occur most often during the middle to end phases of group life. It has been observed (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne 1964) in one or more of the following variations:

> In one T-Group, a number of events relating to feedback had occurred. . . . one anxious member had asked the group members to tell him anything they wished about himself. He was here to learn all he could. He could 'take' anything they said. His anxiety communicated clearly, however, and the group did not respond, except to show increased uneasiness (p. 156).
>
> At the end, very simply, he asked them to respond in any way they pleased, but in ways they thought would give him more knowledge of himself . . . not to hold back their reactions to him (p. 158).

The above references point to the emergence of issues dealing with members beginning to question their present behavior. This is usually concurrent with a request for an evaluation of on-going behavior from a group member, and a demand for more effective future behavior.

I. Specify the context within which the event occurs. The type of PTI delivered at the beginning of a training group meeting is usually designed to provide continuity between related sessions, and/or to establish a climate such as trust. This essentially involves an initial input that arouses or intensifies some productive emotional mood, perhaps a sharing of feeling that facilitates openness and trust.

In this example, the group leader has just finished a PTI involving the feedback process and productive risk-taking. One of the group members who is highly intellectual and cognitively oriented makes a statement directly to him. It is obvious from his appearance and tone of voice that he is highly anxious.

II. Specify the behavior and/or conversation that led up to and immediately preceded the choice point.

Group Member A: "I've been sitting here listening to you and I wonder--are you talking about me? Am I supposed to change? What am I supposed to do? I've always been relatively secure the way I am. Why should I change--or how?

In the moment of silence following this statement all eyes are on the trainer. What are the issues involved and the response alternatives available?

III. Specify the level, type, and intensity of the intervention response. The level of intervention for this particular critical incident should take into consideration both the issues involved in the PTI and the benefits to both individual and group and should serve, if possible, to link them together. One alternative is simply to intervene at the group level in order to turn the individual's question back to the group. Thus, the response, "Perhaps this is a question with which each of us is struggling. What does the group think and feel about Bill's question?" While useful, this response may not take adequate advantage of the opportunity to integrate knowledge, values, and practical skills. We might contrast it with another alternative.

The group leader begins, "Bill, I had the feeling as I was watching and listening to you just now, that you were feeling pretty tense and uptight. The reason I mention it is that I feel that way, too, sometimes." (This is a direct intervention at the individual level, experientially reported. It serves the purpose of communicating both to the individual and the group that the trainer is aware of the feelings involved and wants to be supportive.) "I guess the questions you raised--can I find a place for myself in the group? Are people going to accept or reject me? How much should I risk revealing and how can I find out where I stand?--are questions we are all struggling with as a group." (This is a continuation of the intervention at the individual level, and directs attention to the larger, basic questions and issues to which the trainer wants to sensitize the group. Finally, the last few words identify the level as one of group concern.) "I wonder if the rest of you would share your feelings about this point?" (The intensity of intervention, in this instance, is judged to be high, and deals directly with very important, personal feelings in a straightforward manner.)

In the above instance, the model of leadership offered is one in which the leader uses his own feelings when they are genuine and when they are relevant to the productive growth of a group.

On the structural level the group leader has the option, as before, of supplementing his intervention with a sensitivity exercise. The following is offered as particularly appropriate.

Behavior prescription. This technique has its greatest potential during the end phase of the group. It requires that enough time has passed and yet that sufficient time remains for the individual to experience and apply the prescriptions given to him. The group member should be able to carry out such prescriptions in the remaining life of the group. It has been found to have limited value in the beginning stages, because of individual resistances and because appropriate norms have not yet been established.

The group is divided into small units of four or five persons, depending upon the size of the group. These small groups then move to individual rooms so that each group is separated from the others. The trainer has already told them: "In order to facilitate the resolution of some of the problems that we have been struggling with, I would like to suggest an exercise in which we can aid each other in both individual and group functions. It is very important, however, that we conduct this exercise in a supportive and nondestructive atmosphere. Here is how we proceed: In each subgroup one person will leave the room for ten minutes. During that time the remaining members will first diagnose this person's typical style of interacting with others, and secondly try to pinpoint definite, specific, helpful suggestions as to how he might be helped to engage in atypical but productive behavior both for himself and the group. I must stress the terms 'definite' and 'specific." Don't make abstract generalizations like 'you're too much of an introvert, so try being an extrovert for a while.' Instead, give him definite and specific prescriptions to carry out that are generally atypical but productive. Thus, one person might be told to express anger toward the group more directly and verbally instead of remaining quiet. The process continues until everyone has been given a 'behavioral prescription.' We will meet back here in 'X' minutes to see what sort of changes have occurred." The group leader may focus upon group functions as a general source of prescription, or he may choose to focus upon functions outside the group as in "back-home" problems. The choice of focus will depend upon the needs of the group and the amount of time allotted to carry out the behavioral prescriptions following the exercise. After the group has reassembled, there is usually little urging needed on the part of the trainer to begin a discussion of roles, functions, and effects that have appeared among the group members.

OVERVIEW OF CRITICAL INCIDENT APPROACH

The critical incident approach is an attempt to recognize and systematically arrange recurrent group phenomena to enable a group leader to effectively utilize a wide range of appropriate interventions. The recognition and collection of critical incidents with a number of appropriate alternative interventions and optional structural exercises should provide a valuable tool in teaching, training, and research. While we acknowledge that there is more than one set of responses to a given critical incident, we nevertheless assert that there are certain preferred alternatives which can be evaluated on the basis of empirical observations of their effects upon the group. In this manner, the begining group leader may be able to develop an effective style of leadership based upon a knowledge of critical incidents and appropriate responses. The recognition and categorization of specific critical incidents as they arise will aid the group leader in his efforts to understand the phase or stage in which a group is functioning and the problems which are of greatest underlying concern. He will also be helped to intervene in ways that facilitate movement in a given direction. This approach in no way inhibits the spontaneous and human quality of the leader-group relationship, since the group leader is free to emphasize or reject intervention alternatives. The choice he ultimately makes will be a function of his experiences and his developing style of group leadership. Freedom for the group leader is increased, not decreased, by providing a wide range of possible intervention alternatives.

If the critical incident is to fulfill its function as a teaching, training, and research tool, it must possess the flexibility with which any ongoing group may be described, since each theoretical approach--nondirective, psychoanalytic, gestalt, and others--has its own unique style of intervention. This should be reflected in the quantity of level, type, and intensity dimensions of the intervention cube. If the intervention cube is shaded with those areas that represent a specific intervention style, then a direct comparison may be made between theories, between areas that are over- or underemphasized, between experienced and beginning group leaders, and so on. By selecting representative examples from major theoretical approaches, by classifying the style of leader interventions, and by shading in the appropriate areas on the intervention cube, a specific identifiable intervention style emerges that instantly reflects the underlying theory.

The nature of an intervention is of paramount importance to both the understanding and control of group growth and development. If the fact is accepted that there is a large measure of regularity and consistency among groups over a period of time and if there are identifiable classes of responses available to the group leader, then an attempt to gather and systematize these incidents and apply appropriate modes of response would seem to be a necessity. The recognition and recording of various critical incidents as they occur during an interval of time would prove valuable in the determination of specific phases of group development, as Tuckman (1968) has postulated in his work. The ultimate benefits of our technological approach using a critical incident model, however, will be to the group that can effectively use knowledge, skills, and values in an integrated framework that will be broadly applicable to the real world.

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SELECTED READING VII-4

ACCELERATING PARTICIPANT LEARNING*

by

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ACCELERATING PARTICIPANT LEARNING

A Continuing Challenge in Trainer Intervention*

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Much of my professional time since the mid-1960's has been devoted to training group trainers. This work has increased my awareness of differences in trainer styles, values, and theories of learning. Moreover, it has alerted me to the things I do as a trainer, to my thoughts about training and about others who are coming into this profession, and in particular, to the characteristics that distinguish my style from that of others. In this chapter, I articulate some of my unique characteristics with openness and candor in the hope that my comments will stimulate others to dialogue.

In a recent paper about trainer intervention (Culbert 1970), I provided a model for accelerating group learning which is broad enough so that any trainer can superimpose on it his theories about how people learn and his techniques for helping them do so. This model contains five assumptions.

1. Trainers *can* through their participation accelerate the natural learning processes of training groups.
2. The ultimate goals of a training group are not immediately attainable.
3. Experienced trainers can predict the paths for reaching these ultimate goals in spite of revisions which must be made as group events unfold.
4. Trainer predictions (whether explicit or implicit) usually have a directive impact on the group's process.
5. Guidelines for the trainer's participation derive from attention to those issues which a particular phase of the group's development is contributing to the accomplishment of the group's ultimate objectives.

In the paper mentioned above, the discussion of this model emphasized what the trainer may systematically do to guide his group's existence. The present chapter contains some of the specific methodologies which I use when working with the model, the rationales for my behavior, and my thoughts about the moment-to-moment participation issues a trainer faces. These issues are grouped into three categories: (1) the unique responsibilities of the trainer role; (2) the singular opportunities of a trainer for influencing others; (3) and the human demands of participation as a trainer in a group.

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ISSUES FACING GROUP TRAINERS
RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE TRAINER ROLE

By responsibilities, I refer to the obligations for performance attached to the trainer role as the result of the expectations of others, of expert knowledge, or of self-expectation.

Responsibilities resulting from the expectations of others. Issue: Can the trainer role be diminished to that of model group member?

An assumption I would like to erase is that the trainer is just another participant. Many contend that a trainer is simply a more experienced group member or the best group participant. In reality, while he is both of these, he also has some unique responsibilities.

Certainly the trainer is a model, whether by his own intent or because others who are in the process of trying to discover guidelines for their participation in the group will see him that way. Participants will expect him to be someone who has successfully dealt with many of the struggles currently confronting them in the group. And in all likelihood, the trainer will also see himself this way. Moreover, participants will quickly observe that when the "votes" are tabulated, the trainer has voted more than once, he is a power figure and others will seek to gain similar power by supporting his views.

I believe, however, that it is the trainer's struggles, not his successes, and the ways he deals with intrapersonal and interpersonal dilemmas, not his solutions to them, that give him what singular value he has as a model. For example, a while ago I had the experience of listening to a participant tell of a struggle that was causing him considerable pain. Since I felt deeply with him, I decided that I would share something parallel that I had struggled with a few years earlier. His reaction was indeed a lesson for me: "Hot dog for you, Sam. You got over yours. What does that do for me?"

Modeling is an unfortunate term because it can imply that something about the trainer's behavior is a performance for others to replicate. I use the term to mean that a trainer can use his real and natural interactions, with the existential outcomes, to illustrate the potentialities of certain kinds of behaviors and relationships.

Responsibilities resulting from the trainer's expert knowledge. There are a number of responsibilities which should be assumed by the trainer when no one else in the group has thought--or has expertise--to pursue them. Sketched below are ten which the trainer might be uniquely qualified to handle.

A trainer is responsible for keeping participants aware of what is happening. The trainer should provide a road map, relating here-and-now activities to group goals in order to assist participants when they get lost. For practical purposes, people are nonparticipants when they are confused or when their thoughts are drifting to something else. Before a group begins, I ask participants to let the rest of us know if they become lost, mentioning that in this way we all have a chance to reexamine group focus and its usefulness to our learning. At the trainer level, I thus have an opportunity to admit I am also lost or to highlight group process and to communicate a broader understanding of its potential than new participants can recognize by themselves.

A trainer is responsible for developing group norms consistent with his learning theories. The norms of trust, exposure of differences, and exchanging of perceptions are among those which lead participants to see blind spots and to experiment with new behavior.

A norm I try to support is that participants share their personal needs when they ask someone else to change. For example, let us suppose that group members confront a silent person about his nonparticipation. If formulated in terms of a "should"--every responsible member should voice his views--the whole group is in danger of missing a very important learning: "Why do the confronting members need the quiet one to speak?" The group can simply decide that the quiet one is trying to manipulate the group, demanding visibility and support by means of his silence. However, this conclusion limits the learning for everyone. Confronting members often do not really face the anxieties the silence creates. They may fear it masks criticism. They may be motivated by their own needs for inclusion and acceptance to form a group norm that everyone must participate. They may be volunteering someone for attention to keep the focus off themselves. For his part, the silent person never really gets beyond the interpersonal patterns that have characterized his everyday relationships. He does not discover the extent of the control he exercises, the power he can have without silence, or the rich opportunities for interpersonal connections that systematically fall beyond his reach. All these learnings become possibilities when a group norm obligates participants to share their own needs in asking someone else to change.

A trainer is responsible for providing accurate perspective for the feedback received by participants. The trainer should balance hostility with warmth and support with confrontation. For instance, when someone is receiving a great deal of critical feedback from three or four vocal group members, he often loses perspective about just how widespread the criticism is. When I think this is happening, I point out to the group that this person is acting as if everyone were critical of him; I thus give others who may feel differently a chance to voice their feelings. Even when a group is unanimous in criticism, I try to introduce multiple perspectives by asking participants to express that self-information which reflects the unique problem posed for *them* by this "objectionable" characteristic. Failure to provide an accurate perspective can lead to eventual resentment of the group by the criticized participant as he gathers more accurate information from his relationships with others outside the group.

There is a special variation of this responsibility that trainers must keep in mind when sharing their own feelings. Most participants think of their expression of feelings as revealing very intense matters. Trainers are more used to expressing feelings, even subtle ones. They frequently overstate or speculate about feelings to teach a participant something. A trainer should be careful to point out when his purpose is didactic, and he should qualify overstated feelings by such remarks as, "I'm only 20 percent annoyed." Because the trainer is a power figure, failure to qualify the degree of his emotional expression can be intimidating.

A trainer is responsible for keeping the tension level of the group at an optimum level for learning. Research has clearly demonstrated that tension bears a curvalinear relationship to learning and, I would add, to relationship-building. Too little tension leaves participants uninvolved and disengaged; too much polarizes them and cuts off communication among them. A technique that I frequently use for raising or lowering group tension levels is to spend time helping participants sharpen their statements to one another. For instance, after silence someone might say, "For the first time I felt good about one of our silences." When I want to raise tension levels, I ask the participant to say more about why this silence differs from previous ones. This can help make him aware of the sources of his tension. When I want to reduce the tension, I ask him to say more about what is contributing to his comfort.

A trainer is responsible for lending his vitality to a group. Experience-based learning is a very demanding process which requires more momentum than is usually needed in order to overcome the barriers to personal learning. If this were not so, this type of learning would occur much more frequently than it does in our daily routines. The trainer's aptitude for spotting learning opportunities and his experience in generating excitement over the possible results of these opportunities provide him with a bank of vitality which he can lend to the group. Of course, there are key moments when group members need to experience their lack of energy in order to develop their *own* momentum; the best contribution the trainer can offer at these times is his silence.

A trainer is responsible for acting as referee from time to time. Frequently a trainer sees members going back-and-forth with statements such as, "You did this. . . ." "No, I didn't. You merely see it that way because. . . ." At some point the trainer can save the group a lot of time and frustration by asking for data and helping to produce it and by setting up rules for talking, such as the common, "I think you could hear one another better if you used 'I' instead of 'we.'" He can also provide perspective with a statement of the following type: "You're so wound up with one another that I don't think either of you is going to get through. Why doesn't each of you pick someone else who knows what you're trying to say and ask them communicate for you?"

A trainer is responsible for providing opportunities for group members to work on the centrally important theme of relations with authority or power. Everyone comes to a group with problems about authority, power, receptiveness to influence, and the like. Authority and power struggles are born early in a person's life and take a long time to resolve. They usually have numerous daily consequences. An important, omnipresent dimension of a training group is that it gives participants a chance to do further work on these issues. It presents a powerful format for attacking them, and the trainer is the key to this process. In contrast to daily encounters with authority where open expression of conflicts usually knocks a participant out of dialogue with the person in authority, the trainer remains in dialogue with each participant over a period of time. Participants, then, can use their relationships with the trainer either for diagnosis or for experimentation with new behavior. Most often this requires interacting with the trainer's masculine side: the part of him which is intellectual, challenging, directive, personally assertive, or willing to fight openly. Unfortunately, despite the preponderance of male trainers, only a minority seem to train with their masculine sides salient. Most interpret the trainer role as predominantly feminine--even maternal --interacting by giving support, nurture, responsiveness, guidance, or reasonableness.

A trainer is responsible for identifying and helping break up group games which interfere with learning. This is a very difficult challenge for a new trainer since these games are often organized around one of his weak sides. Groups can subconsciously sense a trainer's idiosyncrasies and play on them to get control of a situation. A group game to which new trainers are especially vulnerable is the unconscious collusion to protect the image of the leader as strong and knowledgeable. Casting the trainer in this role supposedly provides security to group members. Of course, there are many collusions which group members enter into to protect their own weak sides, but these are usually easier for the trainer to spot and interrupt.

Following are two examples of group collusion which I encountered when observing new trainers.

1. The group talked as though they had established a very warm atmosphere, but there was no apparent reason for it. My first thought was that whatever produced the warmth the members were alluding to had taken place at an earlier session that I had not observed. Then, however, the conversation veered away from an opportunity for two participants to appropriately recognize their appreciation for one another. No one objected when the subject was shifted suddenly to another subject which produced a seemingly warm interchange among the participants. Later the trainer and I discussed his own personal problems with intimacy and after some time we concluded that his group was mirroring these problems. They were giving the illusion of intimacy and depth as a defense against their anxiety in

displaying the caring and vulnerability required for achieving real intimacy.

2. The trainer was very aware of my presence as a consultant, despite our having discussed the possibility of this awareness before the group. He was very concerned with impressing me, and my own needs unconsciously reinforced this concern. The training session produced no beneficial results. Participants were slow and quiet and refused to build upon one another's comments. The trainer reacted to this by becoming increasingly active; he singlehandedly was trying to be the group. The session ended in frustration for everyone; for the trainer because of his performance, and for the participants because of their inability to capitalize on the leadership "offered" them. In my subsequent discussion with the trainer, we posited another strategy. He could have helped generate another kind of process and smoked out live issues by saying to the group, "There doesn't seem to be much happening tonight. Are there any reasons why we just don't knock off?"

In asserting the trainer's responsibility for breaking up group games, I am not advocating that he enter and save the group whenever things are not proceeding well. Part of participant's learning is in learning to shape the group process around themselves. In my thinking, however, the trainer has responsibility for contributing his assessment of interaction patterns--even when letting the group members "do it themselves." The group may or may not be able to use these contributions, but it is helpful if members see the trainer as pitching in rather than as sitting back passively. For example, in moments of group malaise, the trainer should be searching his silence for ways to help, even if this means telling the group that he has been thinking for the last fifteen minutes about what to do but has not been able to come up with anything.

A trainer is responsible for helping participants separate diagnosis from a mandate for change. Realizing the existence of a problem does not necessarily reveal its solution. Group members often react angrily when the trainer points out something they know to be true but which they do not like about themselves, although the trainer's motivation for telling them may have been constructive. In such cases, it is likely that members project upon the statements a stronger criticism than was probably intended. Any criticism may actually be about their ineffectiveness in getting what they want for themselves or about the problems their behavior creates in a relationship with them. The members, however, feeling inadequate because they cannot immediately change, are self-critical and thus defensive.

The trainer can perform a beneficial service to group members merely by finding support for them against their own self-criticism. Participants need to discover that there are good reasons for the difficulties they have in changing. The trainer can help with this by asking a participant to repeat his description of the criticized characteristic so that the other participants can see it clearly. Typically this reveals problems in the accuracy with which the participant sees himself and underscores any gaps in his understanding of his motivations.

Since is is usually the narrowness of the insight that has blocked previous attempts to change, separating diagnosis from change usually makes available behavior alternatives. In such situations, the trainer is dealing with a real-self/ideal-self discrepancy. The participant is frustrated because his behavior is not more like his ideal of how it "should" be. A more accurate real-self picture usually reveals "good" reasons why the participant behaves the way he does and, in the process, confronts unrealistic aspects of the ideal-self image. The anxiety aroused by too large a gap between real- and ideal-self images is reduced. Thus, providing an accurate real-self picture often leads participants to greater self-acceptance and frees them to change, or not to change, their behavior.

A trainer is responsible for helping a participant separate the positive, goal-congruent aspects of his behavior from those aspects which are viewed negatively by others and which cause him to want to change. Group members frequently experience the feeling that they are being asked to change a favorite quality, even though they cannot quite articulate what they like about it. When dealing with so-called normals, the trainer must remember that there are adaptive aspects of all behavior and that these aspects must be considered lest the person being asked to change feel a sense of personal loss. Separating the adaptive from the maladaptive, however, is not a task that the trainer can count on other group members (with dynamic and complex links with one another) to perform.

For instance, a participant's aggressive behavior when angry can block the expression of others. Given a choice, the aggressive participant probably does not want to do this. On the other hand, the angry behavior also has useful aspects for him, such as allowing him to release tension and freeing him to be a more interesting companion for others. The message, "Stop being so aggressive," needs to be received with greater precision; the message is not just "Stop being aggressive," but also "Stop violating my boundaries with your aggressiveness." The challenge to the trainer is to manage, when possible, the following process: (1) Make the consequences for the person objecting to the aggressive behavior more apparent to the aggressive person; (2) Get the aggressive person to state his values about these consequences (the reactions of the objector) without losing his sense of the adaptive aspects of the aggression; and (3) Get both to collaborate in modifying the troublesome aspects of the aggressive person's behavior. When accomplished, this kind of collaboration can lead to deep expressions of warmth as each person in the conflict experiences from the other respect for and support in the dilemma. The objector gains the understanding and respect of the aggressive person for the problems he is experiencing with him, and the aggressor gains support in his ability to change his behavior without giving up some aspects which are valuable to him.

Responsibilities resulting from a trainer's self-expectation. Issue: Must the trainer require participants to accept as a matter of faith his assumptions about the kinds of behavior that produce learning?

My response to this issue is a resounding "no"--of course tempered in practice by my limitations in articulating training-group processes and by my own behavior as a critical part of those learning processes. I strongly believe that the most central value of the training-group process is that participants learn how they have learned. In fact, my ultimate objective as a trainer is to teach participants how to produce similar learnings in their daily activities. (I will go into this more fully in a later section of this paper.) This objective is hard to gain when the trainer takes the nondisclosing role of guru. To the extent that the trainer is either not articulate or is unwilling to discuss his assumptions, he is subtly building up his own charisma at the expense of participant learning. On the other hand, some trainers believe that immediate solutions to problems, transcendental experiences, and exploration of the depths of interpersonal connections in the group are the most important outcomes of a training group; these trainers can make good use of the role of guru-trainer to produce such outcomes.

Early in a group, participants frequently require more informational support than the trainer can usefully impart. For one thing, participant needs for information are usually based on emotions which they do not want to admit. Thus, these feelings are not easily engaged. At such points, the trainer may seek to engender confidence in his own abilities in lieu of information. I believe, however, that even under these circumstances it is better for the trainer to build confidence in himself by means of an in-the-group track record than by relying on prestige or status brought from out-of-the-group activities.

For the trainer to discuss his assumptions about learning-producing behavior gives each participant more responsibility for group process as well as for his own behavior. It challenges each person to be the architect of his own learning and to involve others as they are relevant to this process. Not being encumbered by the expectation that he will manage each participant's learning frees the trainer for data-producing and integrating roles which only he can fill.

Participant responsibility is not possible when the trainer makes a statement that interprets behavior without revealing his data, when he picks at words rather than reciprocally engages participants, or when he supports and feeds transference rather than clarifies group preceptions of himself as a person. In addressing this issue, I make a point of sharing my data with a group by replacing "Somehow I get the feeling that. . .," with "Let me share. . ." interventions and statements of the reasons for a particular sharing.

There are some other obvious benefits that accrue personally to trainers who attempt to make their assumptions public. These trainers get immediate feedback about the accuracy of their theories and the usefulness of their interventions, with implicit suggestions for modifications. They also learn by being asked questions to which they do not yet know the answers. By making assumptions public, trainers also can learn while demonstrating the experience-based methodologies of data collection and analysis, while experimenting with new behavior, and while generalizing from new learnings to modify related theories.

Issue: To what extent must participant learnings be made explicit?

Learning must be made explicit to a considerable extent. An important trainer responsibility is to arrange impromptu examinations of what the learning participants indicate (often without words) they experience. In dealing with personal learning, people can hedge on their intentions to change unless they publicly put their learnings into words. Verbalization and public acknowledgement seem to serve three major purposes: (1) They press the learner to address gaps in conceptualization which cause him to be tentative about that which he already knows; (2) They produce a concrete expression of the learner's commitment to act to which he can later refer as a bench mark for evaluating his behavior; (3) They elicit support from others in unlocking the learner from old patterns which are discrepant with his new desires for participation.

Explicit statements of participant learning are also valuable to the trainer. I am often surprised to find that the meaning of a group experience for a participant is not what I had assumed. As a trainer, I feel an obligation not to brainwash people to see things differently than they do. Explicit expression allows both participants and me to be aware of our differences and to recognize subsequent opportunities for data collection which are relevant to dialogue and mutual understanding.

Certainly there are rich implicit learnings that defy description and that in some cases would be diminished by discussion. Such learnings center around expressions of intimacy. I call such experiences "existentially pure." With the passage of time, however, people become less vulnerable when talking about these experiences, so that we can learn from them without violating their memory. I jokingly tell participants my main commitment is to a "learn-in," not a "love-in."

OPPORTUNITIES OF A TRAINER FOR INFLUENCING OTHERS

I have already mentioned that the trainer gets more than one "vote" in the democratic processes of the training group.* Even if the trainer leaves the room, some participants in the group are guessing how he would "vote" if he were present. This is a fact no matter how much a specific trainer might protest.

Issue: Should the trainer strongly influence a training group's climate in terms of his own preferred style for group interaction? The trainer should decidedly influence a group's climate, as long as his preferred style provides enough latitude so that participants can learn using variations suited to the ways they learn best.

Group training is still an art. For practical purposes this means that different trainers can achieve similar results by doing things in their own individual ways. Each trainer has his own theories of how people learn and how he can best contribute to these learnings. While all of us have a tendency to state our theories as if they were equally valid for others, we privately acknowledge that, in part, our theories are formal justification for our doing the thing we uniquely do best. It is in the participants' best interests for the trainer, when necessary, to structure the group so that he can employ his best style. Without detracting from the validity of this assumption, I have also learned from my work with interns and my research (Culbert 1968) that most trainers have a far greater range of participation styles than they typically express. Accordingly, I both encourage new trainers to do what they feel they do best and also to experiment with new ways of accomplishing their training-group objectives.

As an example, I would like to mention one of the things which I do well in a training group. I use my own personal involvement in the group process as a key means of illustrating data which are critical to diagnosis and problem identification. Typically I am after data that are not quite at the level of group consciousness so that they could not easily be brought to the surface by others. I begin by engaging the participants (or the group if my hunch is at the level of group process) on the dilemmas with which their behavior faces me or the feelings they stir up in me. The purpose is to get myself involved in an interaction in which I experience the behavior I want to comment about. In the process, I am a rather open participant and am very responsive to discussing "my piece of the action." It has been commented that there are real "handles" on me if someone wants to get back at me as a way of discharging his defensiveness.

When the critical data have been made visible in my interaction and my feelings as well as those of the person or persons I was addressing are at a point of at least temporary resolution, I invite the others in the group into the conversation. With the data more evident, they are able to be more articulate about similar issues they have been experiencing with the person with whom I was involved or with others in the group. I conclude my participation by conceptualizing the data I observed both in my interaction and in the subsequent comments of others and then try to complete the bridges to others who could have been involved but have not yet participated. Although I intend this kind of participation for diagnostic purposes, it frequently stimulates a learning process by producing a disequilibrium between the behavior the participant wants to change and the anxiety which was previously kept under wraps by this behavior.

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* I learned this most vividly from Leland Bradford, former head of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science. How it delighted me to hear him say during an NTL Central Office Staff meeting, "I cast one very strong vote for...."

Intentionally structuring a training group to support the trainer's unique style is a process which requires constant introspection if the trainer is to remain effective. There is always a risk that the focus will be more on the trainer's needs than on those of the participants. The opportunities to attain professional effectiveness while fulfilling personal needs makes the trainer role an unusually attractive one. Those who fill it have a context for centrality, self-disclosure, influencing and helping others, having their sensitivities appreciated, demonstrating effectiveness as a person, being seen as sexually attractive, and so on. While many such expressions can be satisfied simultaneously with participant growth and learning, some block the participants. I have never yet observed a trainer whose needs did not occasionally get in the way of other people's learning. The challenge here is for the trainer himself to be an open system with means for monitoring his actions, for assessing their consequences for others, and for changing his training behavior when appropriate. Flexibility--the ability to change within the group--is more often than not contingent upon the trainer's ability to find ways of fulfilling the same needs outside the group. All trainers confront this problem to some extent.

Just as individual trainers have their own styles (albeit some less effective than others) for facilitating group learning, participants too have styles which characterize the conditions under which they learn best. For example, given alternatives, some people prefer aggressive interaction and others require a group climate of considerable support. While some day we may know enough about learnings and training styles to form optimum matches, today we have to content ourselves with finding trainers whose styles, regardless of specific characteristics, provide enough freedom so that participants can learn in the individual ways which are best suited to them.

The key characteristics in providing participants with this kind of freedom are breadth of trainer repertoire and personal willingness to try different alternatives. This does not mean that the trainer need be all things to all people--only that he exercise flexibility and a willingness to try different types of interventions and to work within climates that are codetermined by participant needs. For example, I recently tried a variety of interventions in an attempt to help a participant get beyond his cynicism. I first dropped the seed of a confrontation between the participant and another group member who was trying to get closer to him. I personally empathized that the reason for his cynicism was probably not that he did not care, but that he cared too much. I encouraged others to talk with him about his isolated position in the group. None of these interventions helped him. He finally was able to make considerable progress when I engineered a role play in which he confronted himself as if he were another group member trying to get through his cynicism to say something that was personally important.

Issue: Does directive action on the trainer's part interfere with the democratic learning processes of his training group? The democratic processes of a training group confront participants with how much of their potential for change is self-determined. Moreover, the processes produce data about each person's unique style of learning, exerting leadership, and reacting to the influence of others. In subscribing to the usefulness of these processes, most trainers used to feel it was necessary for the leader role to be filled with nondirective behavior. The democratic group processes were initiated by confronting participants with an unstructured and ambiguous situation and then the trainer implicitly challenged them to make something out of it. In coping with this trainer-structured dilemma, participants produced data representative of their coping styles. The group could analyze and relate to these data once they found out what they were supposed to do. Marrow (1964) presents an excellent example of this type of training. The trainer's role, in the simplest sense, was not to tell the group what to do but periodically to ask members to analyze the group's process or to share their own reflections about the salient dynamics and learning conflicts facing the group or individual members. Colleagues who trained this way tell me, however, that they were not responding to a table of random numbers when they chose a particular time to ask the group to reflect. There is no doubt that their directiveness was subtle.

It is rare to find such a group today. For one thing, participants seldom come to groups without first speaking with a number of others who have had training-group experiences. They not only know what kind of group processes to expect but sometimes know about some of their trainer's salient personal characteristics. Trainers are no longer content with group learning rates produced without a substantial amount of trainer participation. They want to experiment with their intuitions and their theories for accelerating participant learning. Trainers also acknowledge that their own participation is an important buffer against their own frustration and the boredom that is produced by a nondirective style. Thus, in acknowledging the directive aspects of the trainer role, the issue has become, "How can the trainer give his directive participation to the group so that he does not interfere with the democratic learning process necessary for certain kinds of participant learning?"

The key to this issue is that the trainer must provide sufficient information for participants to evaluate his direction against their own objectives for participation. This entails

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TABLE 1. Phase Progression in Weekend Human Relations Group

Time	*Specified Phases of Progression*	*Dynamics Which Evolved in the Group*	*Group Task Implicit in the Dynamics Evolved*	*Specific Within-Phase Trainer Behavior Emphasized*
Friday evening	1. Developing a climate of trust	Group story telling: members attempting to make comments consistent with what had preceded.	To determine whether there is enough member similarity to begin risking disclosure of individual differences.	Sharpen and clarify participant statements in order to facilitate interparticipant dialog. Call group members' attention to the trust elements of what is being discussed.
Friday evening & Saturday morning	2. Exposure of individual differences	Members present encapsulated self-statements revealing differences.	To test, simultaneously, reactions of others to differences and willingness of others to respect (self) defenses.	Establish norms of openness and respect for differences; support those members who wish to remain "closed" but assist them to articulate their reasons for taking this position.
Saturday morning	3. Exchanging perceptions of others	Members interact spontaneously with one another and build potentially growthful relationships.	To discover whether others could really be resources for personal learning.	Support feedback through encouraging participant interaction and involvement with others. Personally model here-and-now, self-disclosing participation, gradually curtailing activity with time.

Saturday afternoon	4. Individual problem-solving	Use of relationships in the group and here-and-now processes as vehicles for helping others look at their own contribution to "back-home" problems.	To capitalize on the full potential of the group resources developed.	Point out similarities between within-group relationships and out-of-group problems being discussed. Identify here-and-now group processes and their possible connections to the relationships under discussion.
Saturday evening	*5. Group problem-solving	Participants relate spontaneously shared problem without being controlled by the attitudinal differences of others or seeking to influence others to be more like themselves.	To work on issues having relevance for all group members without compromising the quality of the individual resolutions resulting from individual differences.	Remain quiet and unneeded.
Sunday morning	6. Reconnaissance and evaluation of personal learning	Free-wheeling participation with individuals experiencing periods of reflection, conceptualization, feedback, and the gambit of self and other confrontations and emotionalities.	To conceptualize the weekend's learning on an individual basis and to test these self-formulations with others.	Help members gain clarification, feedback, and back-home conceptualizations by identifying appropriate sources (persons) of information including oneself. Summarize group processes and challenges for further individual growth.

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* This phase was spontaneously designed by the group members.

SOURCE: S. A. Culbert, "Accelerating Laboratory Learning through a Phase Progression Model for Trainer Intervention," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 6, no. 1 (1970): p. 45.

the trainer's being explicit about his objectives, clearly explaining why he thinks the process he is suggesting will accomplish the goals he has suggested. It also involves the trainer's explaining whether he is acting on a hunch or whether he has no idea at all about what the group might do. Such information leads participants to a different type of dependency than that created when they are asked to do something by the trainer without much more explanation than is implicit in it as coming from someone who is usually right. It is my desire, when being directive, to focus my directiveness at producing data for better democratic decision-making by participants. My directive behavior is usually focused on developing group processes and seldom at influencing specific decisions such as whether the group should accept an observer or discuss Bill's feelings before hearing from Pete. While I am usually willing to share the consequences I believe will follow from specific actions contemplated by the group, I try not to control the extent to which participants experiment with behavior for which I predict less than optimal consequences.

A very difficult situation for me is seeing a participant make a decision on the basis of adequate data but with an inaccurate interpretation of it. This is often seen in the person who explains to a group that openness only results in hurt for him. When asked if he is sure this is so, he produces a string of examples to prove the validity of his assertion. Continuing to contest his position would appear to be arguing with him over conflicting values. Remaining silent is to go along and give the impression of supporting the conclusion drawn by the participant. In such situations I tend to be a risk-taker, feeling that I do have a responsibility to provide each participant with a *choice* and feeling that at present this person does not have one. Usually I make him aware of my disagreement with the conclusion he has drawn from his data. I try to engage him in further data analysis, using data collected more currently from in-group events. For instance, with someone who is defending the desirability of not opening up, I call his attention to both the consequences others are experiencing for their openness and to the consequences he is experiencing for his lack of it.

Issue: Are there guidelines for knowing when to comment at the individual, interpersonal, group, or organizational levels?

Issue: When should the trainer react to content discussion and when should his comments be addressed to the process or dynamics of the discussion?

Issue: How does the trainer decide to intervene in the first person to initiate a personal interaction, in the second person to respond to someone, or in the third person to help others get into dialogue?

Each of these issues confronts the trainer with the potential usefulness of a theoretical or practical frame of reference which could present him explicit guidelines for making his interventions. Not many trainers give much thought to a theory or set of practical objectives when they make their interventions. Usually trainers base interventions on their intuitive feeling for the requirements of the immediate situation or in terms of an overall project such as that of getting group members to be learning resources for one another.

I have recently described (1970) how, before a training group's beginning, I attempt to build a cohesive frame of reference for my participation. First I interact with participants to reach joint agreement about the overall objectives of the group. I next try to predict the phases of development through which the group will have to progress toward its overall objectives. These predictions are open to modifications as the group actually unfolds, but the specified phases provide me with a frame of reference for understanding group events and provide insurance for participants that they will cover the necessary ground for achieving their objectives.

To illustrate, table 1 summarizes a weekend group whose overall objective was "to increase self-awareness through looking at the ways participants dealt with individual differences (Culbert 1970, p. 45)." The first, second, and last columns of this table are self-explanatory. The third column describes the salient dynamics evolving in the group as the members worked at each phase of the group's development. The fourth column describes my understanding of the task which was implicit in the group's dynamics at each phase. Not included in this table is a description of the systematic steps I took to facilitate the group's progression from one phase to the next.

Issue: Do better trainers really make fewer mistakes? The trainer's role permits a great deal of latitude. All trainers can and do make many mistakes without seriously impairing the learning processes of training groups. We err in reading group emotionality, in being sensitive to the feelings behind a participant's statement, in indulging our needs, and in projecting our conflicts onto participants. While I probably make substantially fewer and probably less serious errors now that I have been training awhile, there is little doubt that I am always making a sufficient number to demonstrate my contention that participants learn in spite of trainer mistakes. Certainly it is also true that some trainers make many more errors than others. However, the number and quality of errors are not the main differences between effective and ineffective trainers. Effectiveness is determined by the trainers' ability to hear and to learn from the comments, or feedback, evoked when he makes an error.

Some constellation of cues always is present when a participant feels misunderstood. Less effective trainers are those who miss these cues, respond to them defensively, or do not know how to react to them. More effective trainers are those who see these cues and respond to them with openness, although they may not, even in retrospect, know how to react "appropriately." Trainer openness to feedback not only has immediate consequences for participant learning but also helps to establish a group climate where others can make mistakes without undue criticism.

A distinction can also be made between *merely* effective and *very* effective trainers. Participants who have merely effective trainers experience quality learning and considerable growth in their training groups. They receive feedback, have important insights, and experience emotionality bearing on struggles which are central to their current life goals. They even experience breakthroughs having major impacts on their life styles. When the group is over, these participants frequently return to their daily routines with real feelings of personal renewal.

Participants with very effective trainers also experience considerable growth in their training groups. When they learn something or experience growth, however, they also learn about the process of how they just learned. The rewards are considerable. Not only do they improve their situations with regard to current struggles, but they also learn how to cope better with the problems they will encounter after the group. They learn a technology for generating the personal and interpersonal data required in analyzing the periodic growth crises that characterize all of life. When faced with key life struggles, they not only will know about the resources available in a training group, but they will also have some ideas for creating similar resources among their current acquaintances.

HUMAN DEMANDS OF TRAINER PARTICIPATION

Training-group participants usually define themselves as normals developing their human potential and seldom as neurotics working to shore up deficiencies. Implicit in this self-definition is the expectation that they will be treated authentically and not clinically. Even though the distinction between normal and neurotic is frequently blurred, the role of trainer does entail using one's authentic self as an instrument of learning for others. This means taking risks and exposing parts of one's self that are not yet fully developed and with which the trainer is struggling. Such involvement, coupled with the intense, emotional encounters which take place in training groups, put numerous human demands on the trainer.

Issue: During a deeply moving encounter, can a trainer give rein to his own feelings when he has responsibility for others? When a participant overextends the limits of his emotional expression, trainers have a responsibility for protecting the participant and for making sure that structures are raised or missing perspectives brought out. This is a particularly challenging responsibility since at times of heightened emotionality it is likely that the trainer will also be experiencing poignant feelings and thus be less able to keep an eye out for others. Certainly this is the case when the trainer is personally involved in an interaction or is relating to an emotional experience of his own.

Three ways come to mind for handling this dilemma. The first is for the trainer to maintain some minimum amount of surveillance of others while becoming personally involved. This means hedging his involvements somewhat by staying in touch with his diagnostic understanding of the participants in his group. The trainer thus becomes involved to the extent that he can be responsive to cues signaling him to switch tracks, relying on his understanding to provide him quickly with perspective on whatever problems come up. For some trainers this means an availability for almost complete absorption in the moment, and for others it means somewhat less personal involvement. Who was it who said his highest human goal was to remain lucid in his ecstasy?

The second way of handling this issue is for the trainer to withhold his full involvement until he knows participants well enough to feel that the group has sufficient resources to cope with small crises. Participants must be responsive enough to provide one another with support as needed. Knowing that at least minor crises will get adequate coverage reduces the trainer's need for vigilance. If something major comes up, there will be resources available until the trainer can cap his feelings and regain his perspective.

A third way of dealing with this issue is to play the odds that no crisis will be so severe that it cannot be retrieved and adequately put in order at some later time. I find this assumption made most often by trainers who are not clinicians, and I do not believe it to be valid. I tell interns that the only trainers who have not faced a crisis of a magnitude that demands their immediate and total availability are trainers who either are not facilitating important learning or who have not trained very much. Moreover, being alert has implications for participant growth. James Clark,* contends that an even bigger challenge in being alert to emotional peaks is for the trainer to be able to distinguish when the peak contains possibilities for accelerated growth and then to use his training and experience to give direction to the participant rather than try to ground emotionally. I find this a very difficult, but important, thing to do.

Issue: Is it essential for a trainer to be "honest" and "open" at all times? Authenticity, honesty, genuineness, openness, and congruence are words which are frequently used synonymously but which actually communicate a range of concepts. Of these words, congruence is the concept which has primary utility for me.

Congruence means that a person's thoughts or feelings and the words he uses or the actions he takes are consistent. Rogers (1959) in the context of two-person helping relationships adds to this definition the idea that the consistency of thought and action must be perceived by those with whom an individual is relating.

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* In a personal communication.

Inasmuch as the perceptions of others are determined, in part, by their own needs and motivations, a person's actions will be congruent with his own thoughts and feelings more often than they are experienced as congruent by others.

As a person, in my everyday activities, I am always on the alert for situations in which I can appropriately be congruent and for people with whom I can risk congruence. As a trainer, I am committed to being congruent to the extent that I am able. I make explicit use of my congruence and of my incongruence--as perceived both by myself and by others--in addressing the learning goals of others. Table 2 summarizes some examples and consequences of trainer congruence. Although somewhat oversimplified, it illustrates how each of the four cells indicated can be split in half (dashes) to show the consequences of trainer participation which facilitate and which block participant learning.

In trying to be congruent, I always intend to be honest, to represent accurately the things I choose to say. I do *not* however, always intend to be open, to express that which I know and which is relevant to a group member or group situation. I think of myself as manipulative at those times when I am honest and selectively open without also being congruent. In furthering participant learning, I may think it quite congruent not to take action or not to reveal my thoughts and feelings. There are a number of reasons why I might remain silent: I might be having difficulty translating my clinical insights into words which would accurately communicate; my expression might rob someone else of the chance to share similar feelings; my expression might be too early in terms of an individual's emerging capacity to use it; or my nonparticipation would serve as a challenge providing others an opportunity to move beyond their passivity and to experiment with their own styles of leadership.

Issue: Should the trainer make his own problems part of the group process? There are actually two questions in this issue. How much of his struggles should the trainer share when he has alternatives for expression? How should the trainer deal with his own struggles when, as inevitably happens, they are interjected into the group's process as salient characteristics of his relationships with others?

I have found that there is a point in each group's life when group members are especially thirsty for the personal and "human" participation of their trainer. Prior to this time they may be solicitous of him, but probably for reasons other than humanness. Disguised in the members' apparent concern for the trainer may be issues such as his role in individual authority struggles and opportunities for flight. As long as group members focus on the trainer, they can avoid their problems in relating to one another.

At the critical time when most group members become genuinely interested in the trainer as a person, they also are probably using their interest to symbolize their growing independence.

TABLE 2. Trainer Congruence: Examples and Consequences for Facilitating and Blocking Participant Learning

		Participants View Trainer's Behavior As Congruent	*Participants View Trainer's Behavior As Incongruent*
Trainer Views His Behavior As Incongruent	Facilitating learning	Trainer feels good about himself and his relations with others. He feels creative and useful.	Trainer's commitment to himself provides momentum for him to support others in their confrontations of him. He utilizes discrepancies in viewing his congruence as a means for understanding the resistances of others.
		Participants trust the trainer and his motives. They are more apt to listen carefully and to lower their defenses.	Participants see the importance of self-commitment in the face of group consensus. They learn more about "inquiry" as an alternative to personal defensiveness.
	Blocking learning	Trainer gets carried away with his own importance. He fails to provide others an opportunity to express their feelings and insights.	Trainer defensiveness is aroused by the frustration and vulnerability generated in being "misunderstood."
		Participants defer too much. They behave as if their own self thoughts are less important than the ideas of the trainer.	Participants become unaccepting of minority dissent. They use this condition as a means of justifying their defensiveness to trainer inputs.

Trainer Views His Behavior As Congruent	**Facilitating learning**	Trainer finds support for his own lack of personal clarity. He may even disclose his dilemma to the group and explicitly solicit consultation. Participants view the trainer's personal commitment to training-group values of openness, honesty, and personal growth.	Trainer is confronted by participants over the problems created for them by his lack of congruence. He reacts sympathetically to confrontation rather than refusing to change. Participants find that their abilities to confront can yield positive results. They also find that the trainer has an "in-process" self-image rather than one of perfection.
	Blocking learning	Trainer is overindulgent to his own needs for too long a time. The absence of group opposition deprives him of one kind of vehicle for getting back in touch with himself. Participants work on trainer-focused projects while thinking that the trainer is responding to their needs.	Trainer fights and tries to defend an untenable personal position. Participants feel alienated from the trainer. They may even conclude that they have been punished for their confronting this discrepancy in trainer behavior.

Most likely they will begin to support the trainer as he reduces the number and character of his differences in participation and begins to resemble a regular group member. At this point, others usually pitch in to fill the maintenance functions the trainer had been performing.

Looking at the situation from the trainer's viewpoint, it may be that he has a need for participation which does not coincide with the group's natural timing for including him as a participant. To the extent that the trainer is able to find alternative outlets for these struggles (perhaps in other colleagues), he ought to refrain from interrupting or personally determining the group process. At such points, the trainer can rely more on technique and less on the use of his own person as an instrument for the learning of others.

The preceding comments speak normatively about "the time" for a trainer's inclusion as a group participant with personal struggles. Certainly there are many situations, almost from the group's beginning, in which the particular sub-project being addressed by the group may provide an appropriate context for problem disclosure by the trainer. The trainer may even believe that, rather than offset the curtailment of any learning objectives, his immediate participation will free him for further contributions. Of course, all this is quite academic when the trainer does not have a choice about whether he will disclose his struggle or when he lacks a frame of reference for differentially evaluating the utility of his interventions. I have spent many moments in groups without having either a choice or a frame of reference.

A particular trainer problem or struggle may be crucially relevant in releasing a group for a period of heightened learning. This is likely when the trainer is himself the center of a group conflict, or when, through exposing his own struggles, he can act as a catalyst for others with similar struggles. At such times, the trainer has a unique contribution to make if he is willing to share his thoughts openly. He makes a far greater contribution if he can discuss his personal struggles in relation to specific group participants than if he discusses them in longitudinal terms. At first glance, this strategy appears to expose less personal vulnerability than talking about problems in the context of one's back-home situation. An equal amount of personal risk is experienced, however, if the trainer focuses his disclosure on how his own struggles contribute to problems others are experiencing in the group. Moreover, if the trainer is not clear about his contributions, or does not stay with the discussion long enough for his role to become clear, he may stigmatize participants with an attribute which will confuse their relationship with others in the group.

Not only does the trainer's sharing of personal struggles serve as a model for participant learning and growth, but it begins to clarify the issues other participants bring to their struggles with the trainer. When the trainer acknowledges his actions, and thereby subtracts his input, what is left can be more clearly analysed and acknowledged by others.

Trainers want participants to leave their groups thinking highly of them. But far more important is that participants leave with a many-sided picture of the trainer. This is a key contribution which trainers can make to participant growth. Many trainers are personally attractive, sexually desirable, and very empathic; some are conceptual giants or powerful confronters. But very few, in my experience, manifest these qualities in their everyday activities to the extent that participants will see these qualities in their training groups. A statement I heard Chris Argyris make to a company president comes to my mind with respect to this issue. He said, "You know, Pete, the longer people work for you the more they come to like. . .[the company] and the less highly they seem to regard themselves." I believe an idealized image of the trainer has a similar impact on participants. Their real-self picture suffers in comparison with the trainer's competence and attractiveness. And the real-self/ideal-self gap for most people is wide enough without the trainer's widening it further with a one-sided self-presentation. I believe self-acceptance to be every bit as important a learning project for training-group participants as self-improvement.

Issue: What personal characteristics are most essential in predicting excellence as a trainer? Recently I supervised the selection of interns and others who were being trained by the NTL Institute as group trainers. In this capacity I received letters of recommendation written by almost every professional who had an active interest in the field of training. They recommended what seemed to me to be a very diverse group of people with very diverse personal characteristics. Few writers mentioned the same characteristics; for that matter, it was rare to find two recommendations for the same applicant emphasizing the value of the same personal characteristics.

Notwithstanding this diversity, I have my own pet theories about which characteristics best predict excellence. The two characteristics on which I consistently seem to rely are social competence and an aptitude for accurate viewing of one's own contributions to interpersonal dilemmas.

I realize that *social competence* must sound like a strange attribute to list as most important; for that matter, I am not even sure that I can be very articulate in stating exactly what I have in mind in using this term. During my training as a clinical psychologist, I noted that many excellent clinicians were failures in relating to people at the social level. They had difficulty discussing topics on which they were not particularly authoritative or in which they were not particularly interested. An example comes to mind of a therapist whom I observed during my internship. He was a masterful therapist and I learned a great deal from watching him. Also, his patients seemed to make excellent progress. This same man, however, would literally walk sideways down the narrow corridors of our clinic so that he would be saved the embarrassment which apparently came from not knowing the cordial exchanges that follow, "How are you today?"

The therapist in this example may not have had more severe personal conflicts than many who are excellent group trainers. My point is that, for whatever reasons, his problems were of a nature that impeded the *range* with which he could engage other people. Experience has led me to conclude that the range in authentic engagement of others outside of the structured training group seems to predict the range of availability and competence within it.

Extended discussion concerning *accurate viewing of contributions to interpersonal dilemmas* does not seem necessary since numerous references to this attribute are embedded throughout this paper. This is not a characteristic that most trainers develop naturally, although most have a natural aptitude for it. In many instances, a person's primary motivation for becoming a trainer is that he sees training as a means of developing this aptitude. Most who have acquired accuracy of self-perception seem committed to it as a central life value. It is essential to note, however, that no one who has acquired it is accurate in viewing himself in relation to others more than part of the time. Thus, for purposes of predicting trainer excellence, this characteristic also includes accuracy in picking up cues which indicate that one is inaccurate in viewing his contributions to interpersonal dilemmas.

Meta-values Two meta-values permeate most of what I do as a trainer. The first is interpersonal bias and the second is a strong commitment to assist participants in learning how to make out-of-group applications of their learning.

By interpersonal bias I mean that no group event or trainer intervention can be considered by itself for full understanding. There are several reasons for this assertion, perhaps the most obvious being the added learning available when group events are viewed from multiple perspectives. The previously mentioned example of group members' response to a silent member illustrated this point.

Examining motives functionally in terms of the interpersonal projects they are intended to service enables people to view themselves descriptively rather than moralistically. Evaluation becomes, to a greater extent than is typical, a matter of seeing whether a participant's behavior brings him closer to his interpersonal projects. This has considerably greater utility for personal growth than reflecting behavior against the "shoulds" of one's ideal-self or those which a participant introjects from the expectations of others. In everyday activities, these "shoulds" sacrifice self-acceptance for self-improvement. Discovering that no fundamental behavior change is necessary is a valuable and often overlooked contribution that training groups make to participants.

Perhaps the most important characteristic of emphasizing the interpersonal lies in the applicability of this learning strategy to participant worlds outside the group. Interpersonal correlates exist in the group for each step of the experimental and introspective methodologies (for example, Schutz, 1967) emphasizing insights and substantive learning.

These correlates are diagrammed in figure 1. Care has been taken to insure that each element in the column on the right (interpersonal) gets coverage equal to that of the elements on the left.

At a minimum, I believe the interpersonal encounters of the training group have value merely because they demonstrate that participants can push the boundaries of experience and interpersonal relationships beyond the limits within which they typically live. The potential is much greater. The enlarging of boundaries presents disequilibriums to typical living patterns and this, with the proper support, can stimulate change toward expansive new boundaries in

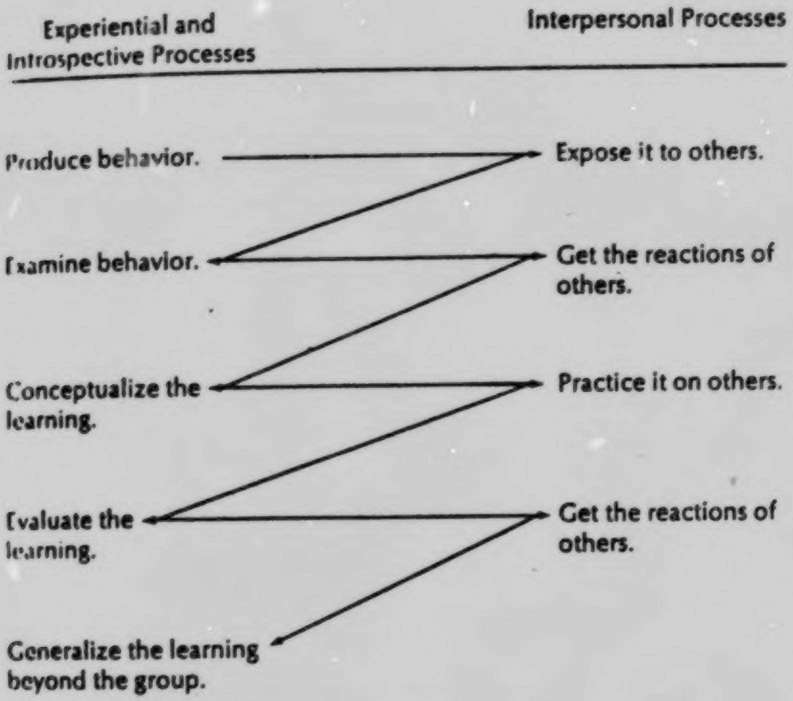
Experiential and Introspective Processes
Interpersonal Processes
Produce behavior.
Expose it to others.
Examine behavior.
Get the reactions of others.
Conceptualize the learning.
Practice it on others.
Evaluate the learning.
Get the reactions of others.
Generalize the learning beyond the group.

Fig. 1 Experience-based Learning Processes.

nonlaboratory activities. Too often, however, training-group learning does not transfer easily to nonlaboratory situations (Campbell and Dunnette 1968). In fact, trainers themselves have difficulty in doing this, as witnessed by the number of times trainers commiserate at the end of a lab that all they have to look forward to are the wife and kids.

Training groups can be structured to provide handles for helping participants bridge their learning to nonlaboratory worlds. I believe this structuring is most important, and I expend a considerable amount of energy on it. Accordingly, there are several types of interventions which I make to help participants cross the bridge from laboratory to nonlaboratory situations.

At the conclusion of learning episodes, I call attention to the contributions made by each person's style of participation. For example, I ask the group members to think about what just took place and ask them to summarize the conditions they saw contributing to these events. I also am likely to turn to those involved and inquire whether their responses were the ones they typically make in similar situations or whether there was something unique about their present reactions. Not only does my questioning encourage people to develop their understanding of what they individually bring to interpersonal transactions, but it also produces an awareness of the factors contributing to the learning processes which they have just observed.

In summarizing, I encourage participants to collect the impressions and reactions of the others present and to answer questions they might have about what has just taken place. Since I too participate, we all have a chance to expose the attributions we have made about what we just observed. Moreover, by this process we add dimensions to our developing relationships. Argyris (1968) believes that making attributions is an undesirable type of trainer intervention. In some ways I agree, and I tried to express this in my comments about defeating the propensity of people for letting "shoulds" influence their behavior. But I naturally make many attributions and participants usually make even a greater number. Therefore, I try to emphasize the importance of collecting information regarding attributions and of learning from the parts of one's self which are exposed in the process. New data about self are revealed when a person attributes one set of motives to data that equally well could support another. In the process, the entire group has the highly important and generalizable experience of collecting data which might have clarified some touchy issue if only they had asked themselves whether there was a chance they could have misunderstood the other person.

Another bridging intervention that I use is that of encouraging group members to bring critical back-home struggles to the group's attention. I do this after some valid basis for trust has been established and the problem-solving potential of relationships has been demonstrated by addressing the here-and-now problems in the group. My expectation is not that the group will be able to solve all, or any, critical back-home problems. Not only is it probable that these problems have persisted for some time, but also most are of an interpersonal nature and could only be solved by having the relevant parties present. I believe, however, that the ultimate validity of the training-group experience comes in focusing group resources on problems that really count. I encourage participants to discuss similarities between the problem-revealer's role in his problem and characteristics of his relationships with others in the group. This almost always leads to personal insights which are directly applicable to a participant's life outside the group.

If the group process is not developed to the point mentioned above, I do not encourage--and often block--revealing critical back-home problems. While I usually will tell a participant that I do not think the group has yet made the most of its capacity for dealing with his problems, I often have another fear in mind. During the relationship-building phase that precedes collaborative problem-solving, everything a person says can be used against him. It is not that anyone is particularly malicious, but issues of power, love, and ambivalence often entail interpersonal acrobatics. Participants are usually quite vulnerable when addressing back-home conflicts, and I neither want to see anyone deeply hurt nor do I want other members to become afraid of discussing their own critical problems and thereby to forfeit a valuable opportunity for learning.

I will, however, often encourage disclosure by a participant who has given out cues that indicate he is deeply troubled about some out-of-the-group situation. I feel remiss in my responsibilities as a trainer if I do not give everyone a chance to participate. What constitutes a "chance" for a given person is always an individual decision. Usually I will call a participant's attention to the unique qualities of the training group which might justify his disclosure; I will also mention anything I know which might indicate that disclosure is a poor strategy--the presence of someone who might misuse this information in another context, for example. But most important, I ask the participant to state the conditions under which disclosure would be a good strategy and I encourage him to collect data bearing on these conditions. This gives others a chance to contribute their personal support.

CONCLUSION

This chapter is a personal consolidation; it gives me a new bench mark for my own growth and discovery, something like composing a journal at the end of analysis. Learning to become an effective trainer and learning to conceptualize seem very much tied to what I have learned by facing my own personal struggles. Then too, I have noted that trainers who try to circumvent their struggles when leading training groups often tend to be bland or inappropriate. The challenge which I continually confront is to find ways of facing my struggles without blocking or confusing others. When I succeed, I am often able to find ways to make my struggles useful to others.

I have wanted in this chapter to stimulate you to think about what you do and why. I realize that many of the positions I have taken are controversial and that many readers will have differences with me. My wish is that we both will learn from our differences. I hope my positions will stimulate you to new clarity and that I will hear of your views and have a chance to extract the learning that our differences can generate.

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SELECTED READING VII-5

DIMENSIONS OF LEADERHSIP*

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*Adapted from Lassey, William R., "Dimensions of Leadership," in Lassey, William R., and Fernandez, Richard R. Leadership and Social Change. University Associates, La Jolla, California, 1971.

DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

NONFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOR

Some participants in groups regularly deter achievement. The more common types of nonfunctional behavior include:

Aggression: working for status by criticizing or blaming others; showing hostility against the group or an individual; deflating the ego or status of others

Blocking: interfering with the progress of the group by intentionally deviating from the subject of discussion; citing personal experiences unrelated to the problem; rejecting ideas without consideration; and arguing excessively

Self-confessing: using the group as a sounding board; expressing inappropriate personal feelings or points of view that are not group oriented

Competing: vying with others to produce the best ideas, to talk the most, to play the most roles, to gain the leader's favor

Seeking sympathy: trying to gain group members' sympathy to one's problems or misfortunes; deploring one's own ideas to gain support

Special pleading: introducing, or supporting suggestions related to personal concerns or philosophies; lobbying

Horsing around: clowning; joking; mimicking; disrupting the work of the group

Recognition seeking: attempting to call attention to one's self by loud or excessive talking, extreme ideas, or unusual behavior

Withdrawing: acting indifferently or passively; resorting to excessive formality; daydreaming; doodling; whispering to others; wandering from the subject

A clear understanding of behaviors that help or deter achievement facilitates improved performance of the leadership role and increased effectiveness of groups, organizations, and communities.

AUTHORITY AND POWER

Individuals achieve positions of leadership for a variety of reasons. For example, an individual (1) may be recognized by superiors or colleagues as having leadership potential; (2) may have inherited a leadership role; (3) may assume the role by default because no one else is available or willing to perform its functions; or (4) may use physical or economic force to achieve a leadership role.

The processes through which a "leader" achieves authority or power vary widely, depending on the leadership context and on the norms of desirable leadership behavior in the group, organization, or community. Behavior considered highly desirable by a street gang may be totally unacceptable in a civic club.

A leader vested with authority and power necessarily takes on greater "psychological size" than other members of a group, organization, or community. This is partially due to:

Individual Attitudes Toward Authority

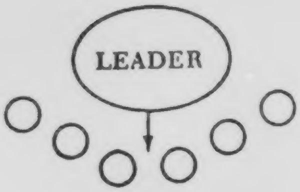
These are conditioned by life experiences, beginning with behavior exhibited by the mother and father. Later, other persons who control one's behavior and distribute rewards and punishments affect one's attitudes toward authority. Those in control assume the aspect of power: they appear physically and psychologically larger than oneself. These feelings and attitudes toward authority may later be projected to other leaders.

Individual Needs for Security

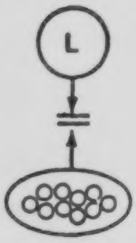
Some individuals prefer a leader who appears powerful. They want protection or are fearful of taking responsibility for themselves. Therefore, the more important the leader is perceived to be, the greater his role as protector appears, and the higher his status in the group.

The powerful leader may encounter several basic types of reactions from the group.

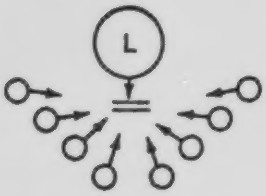
Dependency - Members demonstrate submissiveness or willingness to go along with the leader's proposals.



Counterdependency - Members demonstrate reactive, opposing, or resisting behavior of two types: (a) individual opposition, or (b) organized opposition--often typified by labor-management or student-faculty relationships.



Organized Opposition



Individual Opposition

Dependent reactions are related to a desire for security. Counterdependent reactions may be related to perceived leader inadequacies, task difficulties, or individual attitudes toward authority. Most groups and organizations contain both dependent and counterdependent members. A group may change from being predominantly dependent to counterdependent. An individual may be ambivalent toward powerful leaders and display both reactions; he may need their direction and protection and yet resent their power over him.

Interdependence - If the authority problem is resolved, the leader will be evaluated more realistically. If the difference in psychological size between the individual and the leader is minimal, mutual respect is likely to increase. The individual becomes interdependent in his relationship with the leader; and a more collaborative, democratic process evolves.

SUMMARY

Definitions of leadership abound. There is no clearcut agreement on the meaning of leadership for all circumstances. Leadership can probably best be understood by carefully studying specific roles and behaviors. Effective management of functional and nonfunctional behavior plays an important role in the leader's achievement of authority, power, and effectiveness. Leadership is subject to study and refinement and, presumably, can be learned through systematic acquisition of appropriate knowledge and skills.

SELECTED READING VII-6

"KILL THE TRAINER"

"KILL THE TRAINER"

In training groups some members may exhibit negative, resisting behavior, opposing the trainer in a struggle for group dominance. This rebelliousness is often labelled as counterdependent behavior or is more familiarly called "Kill (or get) the trainer."

There are certain things trainers do that may cause a "trainee revolt." If a trainer expects rebellious behavior as a natural part of the training process, his expectation will probably be realized. If he assumes an authoritarian attitude and shows disdain for the group, acts superior to the group, or verbally and nonverbally asserts his expertise (he is always right; the group is wrong and doesn't listen), trainees will rebel. If he is tired, under a lot of stress, and manipulates the group to meet his needs without consideration of theirs, rebellion will occur. If trainers fight among themselves, the group will be fragmented, perhaps causing rebellious behavior. If he doesn't explain what the course is about or clarify participant expectations, most trainees will feel dissatisfied and frustrated. They will also feel disillusioned, that material has been misrepresented.

By virtue of his position, the trainer is viewed as a person of authority and power: he assumes a greater "psychological size" than other group members. The psychologically larger leader encounters two basic types of reactions from group members: dependency (submissiveness) and counterdependency (reactive, opposing behavior). Most groups are made up of both dependent and counterdependent members, and tendencies toward either reaction may exist in individuals, allowing the group to change in either direction (Lassey, 1976).

Generally this behavior occurs during the second phase of group development as members are struggling with *Organizing to get work done/Intragroup conflict*. Participants bring many unresolved conflicts concerning authority, dependence, rules, and agenda to a new situation; therefore, the issues that emerge during this phase reflect interpersonal conflict over leadership, power, and authority. The actions and attitudes of trainers can contribute to these conflicts, promoting behavior that may be interpreted as resisting and opposing.

A certain amount of questioning, manipulating, and opposing behavior is expected within any group. People want to find out about the group. Can it meet my needs? How can I make that happen? Will I be recognized, respected, and valued? Will I be listened to? Will I be heard? People need to test their own power and that of others in the group, to test the ground rules and the sanctions. Behaviors exhibited by participants in response to these issues vary according to the participant's gender, culture, personality structure, urban/rural regional style, and type of training group.

When these behaviors occur it is important that the trainer avoid being manipulated into self-defeating behaviors. He should not assume the role of parent or authoritarian expert. Fighting with participants about an issue, chasing after a participant who walks out of the group, becoming defensive, are all behaviors to avoid. When these behaviors occur, the trainer should try to identify what is happening. He should not assume that an issue is invalid simply because a trainee raised it during this period of time. He must work with the group to explore the issue(s) in question. Sometimes training cannot progress unless issues are dealt with at the moment they occur; at other times the group may be able to proceed with the training, setting aside time later in the session to deal with the issue. In working through a trainee revolt a trainer should remember that:

1) He does not have to respond to every statement, issue, or question.

2) Unless his behavior has been really obnoxious, many group members will offer alternative points of view that support the training and trainer's position. The trainer should let group members express themselves and explore the issues. The group can be trusted to find a reasonable resolution.

3) He should acknowledge his contribution to the problem. Trainers are people; they make mistakes, too.

4) He should keep the training objectives in mind and remain open to the opinions of others. Flexibility should be maintained within the constraints of the training goals and objectives. But trainees should be reminded that the trainer's job is to conduct this training course and if the course doesn't meet their needs, they are free to leave.

MODULE VIII: ADAPTING TRAINING PACKAGES: UNDERSTANDING THE DESIGN PROCESS **TIME:** 3 HOURS 10 MINUTES

GOALS

- To enable participants to effectively accommodate packaged training programs to particular needs of specific target groups
- To present the rationale for systematic program development process as a useful diagnostic framework for identifying the learning assumptions underlying the educational technology of packaged curriculum designs.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Recognize the need to modify or expand packaged training programs by relating personal experiences of ineffective training due to rigid adherence to packaged curriculum plans
- Identify the steps in a systematic program development process which ensure that the principles of adult education will be adhered to in each training exercise
- Identify the adult learning assumptions underlying each step
- Identify what data are generated in each step to specify the design, trainer's role, learner participation, and environment.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Overhead projector and transparencies (optional)
- Participant Manual

WORKSHEET VIII-1
ADULT EDUCATION QUESTION FORMAT

1. What were the assumptions about the LEARNERS?
    - Motivation
    - Readiness to learn
    - Ability to learn
    - Individuality and autonomy
    - Experience of the group
2. What were the assumptions about the TRAINER?
    - Adaptable style
    - Agreed-upon role
    - Knowledge of topic
    - Leadership
    - Facilitation skill
3. What were the assumptions about the ENVIRONMENT?
    - Psychological appropriateness
    - Physically conducive to learning
    - Size of group
    - Composition of the group
4. What were the assumptions about the METHODOLOGY?
    - Self-directed activities
    - Experience-based activities
    - Problem-centered activities
    - Learnings which are able to be immediately applied
    - Practical application of skills back on-the-job

WORKSHEET VIII-2
DESIGN PROCESS DIAGNOSTIC QUESTIONS

I. NEEDS ASSESSMENT

A. Organization Analysis

- What priority of need does organization place on having these participants learn these new knowledge, skills, attitudes?
- What does the salary level indicate?
- Is the job essential to the organization achieving its goals?
- Why has the organization asked for this training?

B. Performance Standards Review

- What is the standard for performance of this behavior on-the-job?
- What tasks does the profession usually expect?
- What is a minimum example of competency?
- What would be a maximum example?
- Whose performance will be analyzed?
- What level of knowledge am I looking for?
- What level and types of skills am I looking for?

C. Performance Analysis

- How does the observed performance of each task compare to what is required?
- What knowledge is lacking?
- What attitudes are lacking?
- What skills are lacking?
- Can training solve all the problems identified?

D. Training Group Analysis

- What deficiency areas are shared by enough people to warrant a training event?
- Are there any knowledge deficiencies in common?

- Are there any skills lacking for the total group?
- Is the whole group lacking in any basic attitudes necessary to do its job well?
- How many varieties of knowledge deficiencies have emerged?
- Can these workers be sent elsewhere to be trained in this isolated deficiency?
- Is there a sufficient variety of attitude deficiencies to warrant a special training focus on attitudes alone?
- How many persons carry the same characteristic?
- How aware of the characteristic are they?
- Do they think of themselves as a group?
- Should training groups be assembled on the basis of one or several of these characteristics?
- Is the worker "teachable" at this moment?
- Is the worker interested in spending time to learn now?
- Is the boss requiring cooperation?
- Does the worker realize his knowledge, skill, deficiency?

II. CURRICULUM BUILDING: MACRO DESIGN

- Are the goals of the program related to the needs of the participants?
- Does each goal statement express some general measure of how and when I will know that the desired result has been achieved?
- What topics are usually appropriate for achieving the goals?
- Is the sequence of topics the best for the participants' experiences and interest?
- Is the overall method of the event the most appropriate for these participants?
- How will the learning be evaluated?

III. CURRICULUM BUILDING: MICRO DESIGN

- Are instructional objectives clear?
- Is there a variety of activities?

- Is each small group task clearly stated?
- Is each activity: self-directed, problem-centered, experienced-based, applicable immediately?
- Is there sufficient time to move from room to room?
- Fatigue factor?
- Is there time to relax and assimilate?
- Is a "getting acquainted" exercise needed?

SELECTED READING VIII-1

STEPS IN THE DESIGN PROCESS

STEPS IN THE DESIGN PROCESS

I. Needs assessment

Definition: The process of identifying training-needed areas in an organization. The process answers the questions: who needs to learn what, when, where, how, and why. The information provided by the inquiry is absolutely necessary before design of training begins. This process is often referred to as "front-end analysis."

Steps in the needs assessment process:

- Organization analysis
- Performance standards analysis
- Performance analysis
- Training group analysis

Usefulness for package adaptation

Most of the assumptions about the learner's need to learn are the result of someone's assessment of that need. Few thorough needs assessments are conducted before submitting most trainees to packaged programs. Because of this neglect, trainers find great difficulty in setting and maintaining the psychological climate required for training. The foundation of any effective learning climate is the learner's acceptance of his/her need to know. If the trainer has scant information about the trainees' needs, the required reinforcements and adaptations will be "off the top of the head."

A study of the needs assessment process will indicate what assumptions ought to be made about the learners and what assumptions might be legitimately challenged.

A. Organization analysis

Definition: Determination of the priority for training event within the context of all other organization needs and priorities.

Principal activities

- Analyze the goals of the organization in which the training will occur.

- Analyze the means which the organization has chosen to achieve its goals; e.g., people, materials, processes, other resources.

- Determine how vital the organization believes the target learning skills are to fulfilling its goals.

- Determine management's purpose in selecting the target learning skills for training.

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Products of this step

- Statement of goals and objectives of organization.
- Written statement expressing organization's need for the training event in terms of its usefulness in fulfilling organizational objectives.

Rationale for this step

- Some organizational needs will not be met by training solutions. Determination of training need can only follow identification of training as a solution to a larger organizational need which can only surface in an organizational goal analysis procedure.
- This analysis helps to relate the need for training in this job (target job) to other training needs which the agency may have.
- Agency goals affect the nature of a job, the priority of a job, the salary level of a job, the support services to the job, the supervision of the job, etc. Priority of training need will affect the design of the program, its location, and its followup.
- This factor will influence the sense of immediacy for the event in the eyes of the trainees. Their "readiness to learn" may correspond to this factor.

Adult learning principles evident

The following principles of adult learning require that organization analysis be the first step in the design process.

- Need for readiness to learn
- Need for problem-centered training activities
- Need for immediately applied training
- Need for personal relevance of training topics.

Relationship to four training event variables

The first step of organization analysis contributes data necessary to development of the following variables which affect the training event.

- Learner: Motivation data
- Method: Problem-centered data
  Small group task questions

B. Performance standards analysis

Definition: A review of the standards to be used for comparison with the actual performance of the potential trainees or learners. This step produces the measure of what is expected of those on-the-job. The assumption underlying this step is that what is to be learned is job-related, such as a skill. If the topic is educational or developmental, some attempt at setting standards must be made before the remaining needs assessment steps can be completed.

Principal activities

- Determine the performance standards for the job behaviors around which the training has been organized.

- Negotiate a consensus throughout the organization to accept the performance standards.

Products of this step

An agreed-upon statement of performance standards for the job behaviors to be taught during the training event. The standards ought to be stated in terms of specific, measurable behaviors.

Rationale for this step

A measure, criterion, or standard for a job must be determined before a person's performance can be evaluated, and training needs identified. Job analysis is a process of determining needed job function and competency level independent of the incumbent worker.

Adult learning principles evident

The following principles of adult learning require that job behaviors to be changed by training have a standard or ideal focus on:

- Adults' need for autonomy in the training process. Adult learners' need to measure and monitor their own achievement.

- Motivation is enhanced by readiness to learn. Knowing the deficit and the goal increase the adults sense of wanting to learn now.

Relationship to four training event variables

The second step of Performance Standards Analysis contributes data necessary to the development of the following variables which affect the training event:

- Learner: Autonomy, motivation, data
- Trainer: Evaluation, criteria
- Environment: Psychological climate

C. Performance analysis

Definition: The process of comparing actual behavior on-the-job to the standards agreed upon in the previous step.

Principle activities

- Develop a plan for assessing each potential trainee's performance of the behavior

    - Interview schedule
    - Interview questions

- Questionnaire
- Other data-gathering activities.

- Analyze deficiences by first identifying gaps between what is and what should be. Subtract the real from the ideal and train to the difference--these gaps become the training needs.
- Group the training needs according to three categories:
  - Skills to be acquired
  - Knowledge to be gained
  - Attitudes to be changed.
- Write up a list of the training-needed area.

Products of this step

- Performance assessment plan
- Raw data file
- List of training needs

Rationale for this step

- The purpose of performance analysis is to provide the trainer with documentation of deficiencies in knowledge, skills, and attitudes as a basis for proceeding with plans to conduct a training event.
- Observation, evaluation, and questioning about weakness is unpleasant and needs planning and forethought to yield valid data.
- Performance analysis is a process of comparing observed job behaviors to stated behavioral objectives of the job.

Adult learning principles evident

The following principles of adult education require that a thorough performance analysis be conducted to document the need for training.

- Need for personal relevancy of learning task
- Sense of immediacy of both the need to learn and to apply the learning
- Requirement of problem-centered learning tasks.

Relationship to four training event variables

The third step of performance analysis contributes data necessary to the development of several variables which affect the training event:

- Learner
- Method

D. Training group analysis

Definition: A process of identifying the characteristics of individual learners which provide the basis for assembling them into effective learning groups.

The most effective grouping is based on a common need to learn what is being taught.

Principal activities

- Review the raw data generated by interview and questionnaires of the performance analysis, and group potential trainees according to common knowledge needs, common attitude needs, and common skill needs.
- Separate out small clusters of learners who share specific needs not common to the larger group.
- Identify the following personal/social characteristics of each learner: age, sex, race, language, salary level, education, location of work space, time available for training, experience, and other cultural characteristics.
- Rate each learner's readiness to learn. Is the individual aware of need? Has the individual expressed an interest to learn? Is a special effort required to motivate the individual?
- Write up trainee selection criteria based on a consideration of organization need, job need, performance deficiency, knowledge need, skill need, and personal/social characteristics advantageous to group learning.
- Feedback to trainees--why chosen for training.

Products of this step

- List of selection criteria.
- List of trainees grouped according to effective learning groups.
- Communication to trainees about why chosen.

Rationale for this step

- Selection of training group should primarily be determined by the common need of the learners.
- There are advantages and disadvantages to various mixes of trainees. Some factors in selection are: common interest of learners, heterogeneous mix of personal resources and traits, ratio of number of trainees to trainer, time, location, and financial resources.
- Selection criteria should be based on:
  - Areas of common need of the learners
  - Areas of common interest of the learners
  - Advantages of heterogeneous mix of personal resources
  - Advantages of homogeneous mix of personal resources
  - Time and resource constraints.

- Much training will be wasted if the learner is not ready, willing, and able to learn. This implies acceptance of the need for training on the part of each trainee.

Adult learning principles evident

The following principles of adult education provide a fundamental rationale to the training group analysis step of the design process:

- Readiness to learn
- Learner autonomy and individuality
- Each learner is the sum of his/her accumulated experience
- Need for experience-based learning.

Relationship to four training event variables

Training group analysis contributes data to several variables which affect the training event:

- Learner
- Method
- Environment

II. Curriculum Building: Macro Design

Definition: A process for outlining the training event in a general overview. The outline includes a definition of goals, a sequence of topics to be covered, a selection of the principal method of learning to be used, and an identification of the main evaluation strategies to be employed.

Steps in the macro design process

- Define training goals
- Sequence the topics (content)
- Select the general method
- Select evaluation strategy

Usefulness for package adaptation

An overview of the purpose and rationale of the training event frequently is a useful technique for reinforcing the learner's need to participate in the event or to confront any complaint that the event is of little value to the assembled participants.

If a trainer is required to adapt a specific exercise, it is important to understand the linkage of the exercise to the rest of the design and how the adaptation might affect the evaluation strategy.

Principal activities of building a macro design

A. Define training goals

These statements of learning outcome are broad statements of intent or purpose for the total training event. Taken together, these goals should describe what the trainees will be able to do at the conclusion of the program and why they should participate in the learning activities. There should be a direct link between the goals of the training and the list of training needs generated by the needs assessment process.

B. Sequence the topics to be covered

The selection and sequencing of specific content areas (topics) should be based on several of the following considerations:

- What type of logical flow would be best for the learners; i.e., topical, cause and effect, level of difficulty?
- What natural sequences are demanded by the subject matter?
- Does "readiness to learn" indicate a sequence?
- Does interest level?
- Does each exercise have a clear linkage with the next?
- Does any activity pre-suppose knowledge or skills which have not been taught?

It is useful at this point to draw a block diagram of the major topical flow of the entire training event.

C. Select the general method

The choice is between a few overall ways in which the trainees may be organized for learning the topics, such as:

- Workshop or seminar in-house
- Workshop in a residential setting such as hotel or conference center
- Spaced-learning activities: series of events over a longer time period with on-the-job tasks as "homework"
- Attendance at academic institutions
- On-the-job training

- Lecture series

- Contract-learning: individually negotiated education efforts.

(An important observation here is that the choice of method should not be made after the goals and topics have been defined.)

D. Select evaluation

How will the success (goal achievement) of the training be measured? Some choices are:

- Pretest, posttest
- Participant reaction

    - Daily
    - At the end of the program

- On-the-job observation
- Self report
- Trainer report

Note: Evaluation is not a final step in the sequence, but a continuous process of feedback and review which matches results to stated goals and must be planned for in advance of each stage in the design process.

Adult learning principles evident

The macro design process flows from the following adult education principles:

- Setting goals relates the training to needs so that a sense of immediacy is conveyed to the participants.

- Sequencing of topics according to participants' ability and interest accommodates two principles: adults are the sum of their accumulated experience and readiness to learn.

- Method selection flows from each of the four principles of adult learning:

    - Autonomy and individuality of learner
    - Experience filter of adult learner
    - Readiness-to-learn factor
    - Sense of immediacy.

Relationship to four training event variables

The macro design process generates information which previously influences two variables affecting the training event:

- Methodology
- Environment

III. Curriculum Building: Micro Design

Definition: A lesson plan or activity sequence for each topic in the curriculum.

Steps in the micro design process

- Write specific instructional objectives
- Select a variety of specific adult education techniques such as lecture, small group discussion, role play, case studies, etc.
- Sequence the techniques according to the experience and readiness of the participants, as well as the difficulty of the subject matter and the technical requirements of the topics
- Develop new content material as required by the topics
- Develop materials such as handouts, graphics, and audiovisual aids
- Design evaluation instruments

Usefulness for package adaptation

Packaged training designs usually contain detailed lesson plans. The following checklist may be helpful in diagnosing what is missing from a lesson plan or what must be added when a problem is encountered by the trainer:

- Goals and objectives of the session; i.e., both broad and specific statements of learning outcomes.
- Length of time required for each activity.
- Equipment needed for presentation
- Copies of all materials to be distributed (any instruments as handouts).
- Statement of primary methods to be used.
- Description of room arrangements.
- Clearly stated purpose of the activity and its linkage with the previous activity.
- An activity to test participants' understanding of the goal of the exercise.
- An identification and justification of the "expert resources" for content input.
- Comfortable variety of activities.
- Major-points summary of all lecture content.
- Detailed list of newsprint illustrations.

- Major discussion points desired to emerge from small group discussion or brainstorming.
- Preposed statements of all group tasks.
- A review activity in which trainer and learner pull together the central concepts so that the group has a sense and recognition that real learning has taken place.
- Method of evaluating whether or not the goal was achieved.

Frequently the adaptation may require a simple solution of the addition of one or more of the above to each activity rather than a major overhaul of the entire curriculum.

Adult learning principles evident

- Planned learning activities for adults must provide for their unique physiological, psychological, cultural, and social characteristics.
- Adult learners learn best when their learning activities are self-directed, problem-centered, experience-based, and have immediacy of application.
- Each learning activity which has been designed according to sound adult education principles can be analyzed by reviewing it from the following perspectives:
    - Will the exercise achieve the objective?
    - Are the learners self-directed?
    - Is the focus problem-centered?
    - Are the tasks experience-based?
    - Do the skills have immediacy of application?
    - Is there adequate time for task completion?
    - Are more breaks needed?
    - Is the room large enough and well-lighted?

Relationship to four training event variables

The micro design process generates information which influences the four variables affecting the training event:

- Trainer
- Learner
- Methodology
- Environment.

MODULE IX: PRACTICUM **TIME:** 3 HOURS 25 MINUTES

GOALS

- To give participants an opportunity to design or redesign a learning task using methods with which they have little experience
- To give participants an opportunity to receive feedback on their style, delivery, processing, and/or interventive skills.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Given a topic, write or modify goals and objectives for a learning activity appropriate to a particular audience
- Given acceptable objectives and an audience, design or redesign a learning activity that is appropriate for the audience
- Deliver and process a learning piece that the participant has modified
- Having presented and processed a learning piece, obtain feedback from colleagues.

MATERIALS

- Participant Manual
- Other materials as needed for trainees' presentations

WORKSHEET IX-1
PRESENTATIONS CHECKLIST

This list is for you to use as a checklist in preparing your presentation.

A. TRAINING DESIGN

Plan to begin your presentation with a brief explanation of the following elements in your training design:

_____ 1. Behavioral objectives: Give 1) desired terminal behavior, 2) criteria, and 3) conditions.

_____ 2. Trainee characteristics: Give your assumptions about your learning audience.

_____ 3. Strategy selection: Name your media and methods and relate them to your objectives and your trainees' abilities.

_____ 4. Presentation.

_____ 5. Processing: Plan to process the activity.

B. TRAINING DELIVERY (PRESENTATION)

Think about the following points as you conduct the training:

_____ 1. Confidence. Communicate to trainees that you know what you're doing, believe in what you're doing, and enjoy doing it.

_____ 2. Content mastery: Demonstrate that you know the subject being presented.

_____ 3. Expression: Use voice (volume, tone, pitch, and talking speed), posture (poise), and gestures (alive body and facial expression) to create excitement, interest, and enthusiasm.

_____ 4. Sensitivity to audience needs: Keep aware of the group's messages to you and respond/adjust in ways to keep trainees with you.

_____ 5. Time: Stay within the time allotted to you.

_____ 6. Evaluation: How appropriate was your evaluation activity in terms of trainees' energy, time constraints, etc.?

C. AUDIENCE RESPONSE

_____ 1. Interest level: Did the trainees look/act interested in what was going on?

Worksheet IX-1, Continued

_____ 2. Involvement level: Did the trainees take part in the training event by doing and speaking as well as by looking and listening?

_____ 3. Satisfaction level: Did trainees indicate a positive response through the evaluation activity?

WORKSHEET IX-2
WOMEN IN TREATMENT I: ISSUES AND APPROACHES

The module you have been given is Module III: Characteristics of the Female Addict.

MODULE III: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

PURPOSE

Together, Modules III and IV stimulate trainees to re-examine their beliefs about the female addict. The purpose of Module III is to ensure that all trainees have a common base of knowledge about the female addict. This module includes:

- Characteristics of the Female Addict as Depicted in the Literature
- The Female Addict Today
- Assessing Client Needs

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the end of the module, and without the aid of notes, the trainees will be able to:

- Identify at least four characteristics of the female addict as described in the lecture
- Identify at least two methodological problems in research on the female addict
- In a simulated assessment interview--

  identify at least four kinds of information needed for a client assessment and

  identify at least two needs and two problems of the client
- From the lecture material and the readings, select the most appropriate response on the posttest given a situation in which the concepts apply

MODULE: III

TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
9:10- 9:40	Lecture: Characteristics of the Female Addict (continued) (III-B-1)			T	Has a diminished capacity to experience joy and pleasure without the use of drugs. Psychological Dynamics (MMPI scores) Shows a lack of self-confidence, narrowness of interests, tendency to worry. May be extrapunitive, relies on a power orientation. Drug Use Patterns Generally turned to drugs for "kicks." Tends to use medical narcotics (morphine, etc.) and sedatives more than men do. Seems to become addicted more quickly than men. Relationships with Men Exhibits multiple problems in close relationships. Frequently has a spouse or partner who is involved in illegal activities. Fears being physically harmed by spouse. Homosexuality Engages in homosexual relationships more frequently than do males. Health Rarely receives proper health care, even for serious conditions. Has more gynecological problems than non-addict. Pregnancy Believes that heroin is a contraceptive.

MODULE: III TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
9:00- 9:10	Introduction to Module III (III-A)		LG	T	● Introduce the module by relating the content of Module II (attitudes, myths, and stereotypes about women) to the female addict. "People view the female addict through the filter of their attitudes, myths, and stereotypes about women. Often this leads to assumptions about the female addict: what she is like, how she should act, and why she takes drugs. As treatment staff, we need to continually re-examine our beliefs about the female addict, since those beliefs influence our behavior towards her."
9:10 9:40	Lecture: Characteristics of the Female Addict (III-B-1)	Lecture outline on newsprint	LG	T	● Lecture on the characteristics of the female addict (see p. 93 for the complete lecture). Methodological Problems in the Research Limitations in Sampling Chein, The Road to H Interpretation of Data Curlee, alcoholic women Family Background May be closer to father than mother. Is a product of battering and emotional neglect. Was subjected to strict sex-role socialization. Shows a lack of affective and cognitive resources.

MODULE: III TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
9:10-9:40	Characteristics of the Female Addict (continued) (III-B-1)			T	Does not actively plan birth control. Does not tolerate well the normal discomforts of pregnancy. Unrealistic Expectations about Pregnancy Believes everything will be fine now. Feels pregnancy will serve as impetus to "straighten out." Anticipates that baby will bring many fringe benefits. Education, Skills and Means of Support Has a disadvantaged educational background. Shows a history of difficulties in school. May engage in prostitution. May engage in shoplifting. May practice other criminal activities.
9:40-10:00	Discussion III-B-2	Newsprint Markers Masking tape		T and t T T and t	• Discuss the characteristics of the female addicts in the trainees' treatment programs. • Facilitate the discussion by asking trainees to describe how the female addicts they treat are similar to or different from those described in the readings and the lecture. List on the newsprint the characteristics of the female addict as described by the trainees. • Then discuss the probable effects of societal conditioning on female addicts.

MODULE: III   TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
9:40-10:00	Discussion (continued) (III-B-2)			T	• Facilitate the discussion by asking trainees to think about the myths, stereotypes, and attitudes about women discussed in Module II. Ask trainees if they think the addicted woman has internalized some of these beliefs. If so, which ones? If the addicted woman feels that she does not meet the standards does this affect her self-concept and behavior?
				T	• List on newsprint the effects of societal conditioning on the female addict as identified by the trainees.
10:00-10:15	Break				Break
10:15-10:25	Assessment Interview Exercise (III-C-1)	Client History Treatment System Overview Client Needs Form	LG	T	• Define "Need" and "Problem" (see definitions in Instructions p. 105).
					• Explain the exercise. The exercise is a simulation of the first of a series of assessment interviews with a female client. The purpose of the interview is to identify the client's needs and problems. At the end of the interview, trainees will be asked to describe the client's needs.
					• Give instructions for the exercise (see full instructions on p. 105).

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
10:25-10:35	Preparation for the Interview (continued) (III-C-2a)			T	• Discuss how she will play the part of the client. • Ask her to fill out Client Needs Form and copy on newsprint her assessment of the client's needs.
				Vol. t	• Discuss, with the trainer, characteristics of the client. • Fill out the Client Needs Form identifying the client's needs, then list those needs on newsprint. • Review the Client Needs Forms; have extra available for trainees. • Select a group member to be timekeeper (or the trainer can be timekeeper). • Select a group member to be the first interviewer. Continue to the right around the circle to choose the next trainee to play the interviewer.
10:35-11:10	Assessment Interview (III-C-3)		SG	T	• Ask client to rejoin the group.
				t	• Interview the client for four minutes each. • Take notes on the needs and problems of the client.

MODULE: III TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
10:15-10:25	Assessment Interview Exercise (continued) (III-C-1)			T	This will be a role play in small groups. A volunteer will play the client. The other trainees in the small group will act as counselor-interviewers, each having four minutes to interview the client. Each interviewer should build upon information obtained by past interviewers. After all the trainees have interviewed the client, the group should have enough information to identify the client's needs and problems. • Divide trainees into three small groups; assign a trainer and a small-group room to each.
				Ts	• Take small groups to their assigned rooms.
10:25-10:35	Preparation for the Interview (III-C-2a)	Newsprint		T	• Prepare the total group for their role in the exercise (5 min.) • Ask the group members to read the Client History and Treatment System Overview (in Trainee's Workbook) while you are out of the room. After that each small group member should think about four questions she would want answered in an assessment interview. • Explain to the small group that you are going to take the next five minutes to work with the client volunteer about her role. • Take the client volunteer outside the large-group room to prepare her for the exercise. Give her the Client History to read.

MODULE: III

TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
12:05- 1:15	Lunch				Lunch

MODULE: III

TITLE: Characteristics of the Female Addict

TIME	TASK/CODE	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT	FORM	WHO	ACTIVITIES
11:10-11:15	Identifying needs and problems (III-C-4)	Client Needs Form	SG	t	• After the role play is finished, write on Client Needs Form the needs and problems of the client as they were presented in the interview; then list on newsprint.
				T	• Take the client outside the room and help her get out of the role she played.
11:15-11:50	Discussion (III-C-5)	Client's assessment of needs (a) written on newsprint	SG	T and t	• In the small group, review the client's description of her needs. • Discuss the client assessments. • Ask trainees to compare their assessment with the client's assessment of her needs. How do they differ: How are they similar? Why? What happened in the interview? • Facilitate the discussion to explore the ways in which the female addict is stereotyped. Did participants stereotype the client? How does stereotyping of female clients take place in treatment programs? • Discuss the ways in which stereotyping occurs in treatment programs.
11:50-12:05	Review of Assessment Exercise (III-C-6)			T and t	• Return to the large group to summarize the mornings activities. • Review the module. Ask the trainees to describe what they learned from this module.

PURPOSE: To give trainees an overview of the characteristics of the female addict as portrayed in the literature

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-9:40

III-B-1

> The literature on women addicts is very sparse compared to the reams produced each year that deal with men;. . .researchers have overlooked the special problems of women addicts and have been content to generalize from the data about men (Waldorf).

METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS IN THE RESEARCH

There are problems existent in any research effort, especially when that effort involves as diverse a population as women in treatment. Many of the myths and stereotypes about the female addict emanate from these imperfections in research methodology. For example, Damman wrote that the

> ...conclusion that the female addict is sicker and more deviant than her male counterpart results from: (1) research in opiate and alcohol abuse that was deficient in methodology, data, and interpretation; and (2) attitudes found in our society that condone different types of behavior for men and women and hence endorse the idea that women who do certain things are more deviant than men who do the same things.

She notes that the literature creating a profile of the female addict as sick and deviant resulted, in part, from a very small number of women entering substance abuse treatment programs, from limited research attention paid to them, and from poor metholodogy employed when studying them.

Prior to the sixties, the tendency was to either exclude women from studies on addiction or lump them together with men. The findings (which pertained primarily to male addiction) were projected upon the female addict population. In the sixties, however, there was some acknowledgement that lumping male and female addicts together might distort the data and its interpretation. Nonetheless, the initial awakening of research interest in female addicts in treatment was not necessarily beneficial. As with most minority groups, female addicts received separate but unequal "treatment" from social science research.

Limitations in Sampling

An example of this trend can be found in *The Road to H,* an early comprehensive study of heroin abuse. Isidor Chein et al. (1964) were among the first researchers who recognized the methodological problems presented by using the small sample of women opiate addicts in the general study of addiction. In discussing this methodology they commented:

> If female(s) are not materially different in relevant aspects of their drug use from males. . .then, in excluding them from the study we have sacrificed little. . . . If. . .there are materially relevant differences, including [women] obfuscates the picture for all. Why not study all groups separately?

Shortly after, Chein conducted a study in which male and female addicts were discussed separately: one chapter was devoted to summarizing the findings on 20 female addicts, the rest to a carefully controlled examination of 202 men. The men were divided into four groups, which were controlled for a variety of factors, including history of delinquency, drug use, and institutionalization.

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CONTENT ON THIS PAGE: Methodological problems in the research, continued; Family Background

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-
9:40

III-B-1

None of the controls used to study the men were applied to the women; therefore the conclusions about the female addict were researched without employing a uniform research design and without controlling for variables.

Although Chein for the most part avoided commentary about overt sex-linked differences between male and female addicts, other writers commenting on the study have suggested that Chein found the female addict to be sicker and more deviant than her male counterpart (Zahn and Ball, 1974). This process by which profiles containing *implicit* comparisons are interpreted as if those comparisons had been *explicit* occurs frequently in social science literature . This is the process by which myths are created. Chein's study merely reported on 20 female addicts; it did not purport to be exhaustive. Nonetheless, the chapter summarizing one exploratory study on the 20 females was entitled "The Female Addict," not "A Study of 20 Female Addicts." This chapter is cited in virtually all the literature appearing on female addicts. In the absence of contradictory data, the image of the female addict as sick and deviant became generalized by this process of citation; the picture was further supported by societal attitudes about females in general (Ehrenreich and English, 1973; Freud, 1963).

Data Interpretation

The interpretation of data is another methodological problem to be considered. One example involves a study by Joan Curlee of 100 men and 100 women of middle- to upper-middle-class backgrounds to investigate the contention that alcoholic women demonstrate a higher degree of serious pathology than alcoholic men (1974). Curlee concluded that the women had been judged to have a higher degree of serious pathology on the basis of the amount of previous psychiatric treatment they had received and were thus considered psychologically sicker than men. She disapproved of this basis. A history of psychiatric treatment episodes is suspect as an index of sickness because women receive more cultural support than do men for seeking psychiatric treatment and women do so more often. Treatment per se is therefore not necessarily indicative of sickness (cf. Chesler, 1972).

Note to Trainer:

For additional examples of limitations in sampling and problems in data interpretation, see Note following this lecture.

FAMILY BACKGROUND

Most studies have found that female addicts generally come from predominantly blue-collar backgrounds. One study found that although more women's fathers than men's were professionals, women also had a higher proportion of fathers with criminal records and sporadic employment histories.

Women addicts describe their parents differently than do men. They seem to relate better to their fathers, whereas males say they related better to their mothers. Women described their mothers as distant, authoritarian, and cold. Fathers were often described as indulgent and seductive; in fact, many women addicts (25 percent in one study by Densen-Gerber) have experienced sexual relationships with fathers or father surrogates.

CONTENT ON THIS PAGE: Family Background, continued

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-
9:40

III-B-1

Women addicts also report that they have experienced less compatability within their family of origin than have men. In Waldorf's study, 25 percent of the women (compared to 11 percent of the men) stated that they got along poorly with their families before beginning to use heroin. White women were found to have had worse relationships with their families than did black or Puerto Rican females. Chein found that 70 percent of his female sample ". . .were recurrently in trouble with their parents."

Many women addicts grew up in a home with an addict or alcoholic relative. Waldorf found that 46 percent of the women in his sample (compared to 26 percent of the men) grew up in a home that had alcoholic or addict members.

In his book *The Road to H*, Chein reported on the incidence of deprived home situations among female addicts. More than one fourth of his sample had lived in foster homes as children. Fathers were found to have been frequently absent during their early or later childhood and parents were either exceedingly strict or overindulgent. Fifty percent of the parents of these women had alcohol problems, compared to only 30 percent of the males' parents.

One prevalent characteristic of women addicts is that they come from emotionally disadvantaged family backgrounds. Chambers et al. report that 54.8 percent of the addicted women they studied were raised in broken homes. Family dissolution occurs more frequently and at an earlier age among female addicts than among males.

As children, these women were deprived of nurturance and warm, loving care. Their parents made unrealistic demands and had expectations inappropriate to the child's age or development. When they could not satisfy these demands they were criticized and punished.

The addicted women studied by Mondanaro paint a very dismal picture when asked to describe their home environment, and how their parents (or guardians) demonstrated love. Toys and books were usually nonexistent. Parents were not involved in the children's school work and accomplishments; parents taught them few skills to cope with the demands of the home environment or to prepare them for adult living.

In Mondanaro's study, she discovered that female addicts were often the products of strict sex-role socialization. Girls were raised to be girls: passive, dependent, feminine, coy, and nonassertive. According to Bem, this type of strict sex-role socialization ". . .correlates with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low self-acceptance."

Emotional neglect as an infant, parents' expectations of premature performance, and strict sex-role socialization fostered a sense of personal inadequacy in these women. As a result of this upbringing and the fear of failure, criticism, and punishment it engendered, many addicted women seem to have a diminished capacity to experience joy and playfulness, and are afraid of taking risks in relationships with other people.

The female addict appears to be a product of battering. The sense of failure and low self-esteem derived from an emotionally deprived home experience are reinforced by society at large. In a society that judges human worth by material power (class), by color of skin (race), and by the presence of a penis (sex), poor people, nonwhites, and women are considered less worthy (Mondanaro).

The family of origin and society both echo and re-echo words the child hears and ultimately believes—that she is no good. Some victims of this type of battering use drugs, some demonstrate other self-deprecating behaviors.

CONTENT ON THIS PAGE: Psychological Dynamics; Drug use patterns; relationships with men

TIME/ CODE	LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-9:40

III-B-1

PSYCHOLOGICAL DYNAMICS

Using the Minnesota Multi-phasic Personality Inventory to analyze the psychodynamics of male and female addicts, Olson found that

> ...the males were significantly more defensive and guarded and the women were more frank and indiscreet with a noticeable tendency to be more critical of themselves. The higher D (Depression) score in the female group suggests that they were characterized by a lack of self-confidence, narrowness of interests, and had poor morale, a tendency to worry, uneasy self-concern, and dissatisfaction with their immediate situation. The significantly higher Pa (Paranoid) score suggests that the women were using the paranoid mechanisms of projection, extrapunitiveness, and reliance on a power orientation. . .the high Pt (Psychasthenia) also suggests that the women showed more doubts, perplexity, and apprehension, or unreasonable fears, than did the men.

Ellinwood et al. found that women addicts were more frequently diagnosed as neurotic and psychotic, whereas men were more often labeled as having personality disorders or being sociopathic.

Waldorf notes that ". . .when women become addicts they suffer more guilt and remorse because it is harder for them to go against society's prescription for femininity and its laws and mores." Because little deviation is allowed women within their sex-role socialization (for example, it is not permissible for a female to "sow wild oats"), they usually feel more constraints to abide by the established norms and legal code of the culture. Thus, when they do deviate, they may suffer about it more than do men.

DRUG USE PATTERNS

Chambers et al. found that the majority (57 percent) were initially turned on to illicit drugs through a friend, and did so for "kicks" or because of curiosity. Thirty-one percent started to use drugs through medical or quasi-medical channels; the drugs used were legally manufactured, a pattern more prevalent among white addicts than blacks. A third group, 11 percent of the sample, were introduced to drugs by an addicted family member.

Several studies have revealed that male and female addicts seem to differ, in some respects, in terms of patterns of drug use. Ellinwood et al. found that medical narcotics (e.g., morphine and Demerol), alcohol, and sedatives were more frequently used by females than by males. Women seemed to become addicted more quickly than men and took a longer time to attempt abstinence.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH MEN

Generally female addicts have been married, but the relationship is usually fraught with multiple problems. The family and societal environments that bred the woman's feelings of low self-esteem and lack of confidence are usually repeated in her relationships.

The addict's spouse or partner is often, but not always, involved in drugs. He is usually not gainfully employed. His "work" may be stealing, boosting, passing bad checks, dealing drugs, and pimp-

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-9:40 III-B-1 ing. He may be violent, taking out his frustrations by beating his wife and child. The wife's fear of being physically harmed by her spouse, should she decide to leave, cannot be under-estimated. Many women maintain these relationships because there are moments of love and warmth within them and the alternative seems to be having no relationship at all.

HOMOSEXUALITY

Although many women seek and find love in homosexual relationships, these, too, may pose problems. Waldorf notes that "American society stigmatizes addicts, prostitutes, and homosexuals and often the female addict is at least two of them—sometimes three. . . ." Thus, in addition to feelings of guilt about prostitution, the female addict may suffer considerable emotional pain from violating society's norms concerning homosexuality. One study reports that many more female addicts than males are homosexual: 29 percent of the females compared to only 3 percent of the males admitted to being either homosexual or bisexual.

Twenty-three percent of the women also reported having engaged in homosexual prostitution while in the streets. Many female addicts seem to become lesbians as a result of suffering abuse by men while prostitutes.

HEALTH

Female addicts also frequently have problems in the area of health. One study found that many women addicts suffer from thyroid disorder, hypertension, asthma, and hepatitis—conditions that require, but rarely get, proper treatment. Another study notes that "most women caught in the criminal-addict treadmill have had one or more abortions," which may have caused gynecological damage. One gynecological study of female addicts found that 90 percent had had venereal disease, and 63 percent were infertile during the period of drug abuse.

PREGNANCY

The addicted woman normally does not plan to get pregnant. Since heroin interferes with normal ovulation and menstruation, the woman is accustomed to missing periods frequently. The notion that the addict is protected from conception while using heroin is widespread. A woman may go for years without using birth control and not get pregnant. Although pregnancy may create great hardships, many female addicts will elect to continue their pregnancy. Some writers have described this as a symptom of women's passivity and inability to act on the world. Many addicted women do not actively plan birth control, and when they find themselves pregnant, they again do not actively think through their various options (abortion, adoption, detox or methadone maintenance, heroin continuation, barbiturate continuation).

Addicts do not tolerate the normal discomforts of pregnancy well. When they experience difficulty sleeping, irritability, fatigue, nausea, and other pains associated with pregnancy, women maintained on methadone often feel that their doses are not high enough. There is also a high incidence of obstetrical complications such as toxemia of pregnancy (pathological disorders generally manifested as metabolic problems), breech presentations, placental abnormalities, and postpartum hemorrhage. Many babies are premature and/or addicted and many show evidence of retarded intrauterine growth. Some experts believe that these babies may become predisposed to drug addiction later in life.

CONTENT ON THIS PAGE: Education, Skills and Means of Support; Summary

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-9:40 III-B-1 The incidence of pregnancy among addicts has been found to be increasing, especially among those under 21 years old, who account for 50 percent of all such pregnancies.

Many mothers frequently talk about "guilty feelings" during their pregnancy. Mondanaro states that many pregnant addicts may be saying that they will feel guilty when and if the child experiences withdrawal.

Unrealistic Expectations Resulting from Pregnancy

Many women believe that now, since they are pregnant, their own mothers will accept and love them; their husbands will get it together, get straight jobs, stop drinking, lose weight, rent a larger apartment, pay more attention to them, stay home more, be helpful around the house: in general, the quality of life will improve. They also believe that they will not use heroin or other drugs because that will hurt the baby and they don't want to do that. Many feel being pregnant will give them impetus to "straighten out."

When questioned about difficulties and disappointments they can foresee surrounding the birth of the baby, the women usually see no obstacles to their happiness, and truly believe that the child will bring many fringe benefits. Anyone who has been a parent can relate to the unrealistic aspects of these beliefs.

EDUCATION, SKILLS, AND MEANS OF SUPPORT

Female addicts have been found to have had disadvantaged educational and occupational backgrounds. Most studies indicate that approximately 66 percent of this group have not completed high school and have usually dropped out of the tenth or eleventh grade after a long history of learning difficulties, misbehavior, and chronic truancy.

Among female addicts in the New York Civil Commitment Program, 65 percent had arrest records. Prostitution and shoplifting were the most frequently used means of financial support during an addiction career, although one-third of the sample also reported having committed burglaries, armed robberies, and/or muggings.

SUMMARY

We have discussed characteristics of the female addict as described in the literature: her background, her relationships, her feelings about herself and her role. We have also mentioned a few of the problems inherent in the interpretation of research data. Your resource manual contains several reference papers you may want to read for further information.

Some of the characteristics that I have mentioned may pertain to clients in your own programs. Some of the female addicts you have treated may have other characteristics. What are some of the similarities and differences you have noted?

Note to Trainer:

Following are more examples of methodological problems that can be used if needed for discussion.

TIME/ CODE

LECTURE: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:10-9:40

III-8-1

Facilitate discussion of characteristics of female addicts in trainees' treatment programs by asking trainees to describe how their clients are similar to or different from those described in the readings and the lecture. See also Note to Trainer for examples of characteristics as identified by trainees during the field test.

OTHER EXAMPLES OF METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

Other examples of limitations in the sampling procedure are evident in studies by Mellinger and Parry. In 1971, Mellinger et al. found that psychotherapeutic drug use was greater among women than men. Parry et al. (1973) studied use of prescribed tranquilizers/sedatives and found daily use to be most prevalent among lower income, more poorly educated housewives.

The format in both the Mellinger and Parry studies suggests that sampling procedures may have led to underrepresentation of street drug users. The data generated by these studies were collected by interviewing respondents who were "selected by rigorous sampling methods in order to form a cross-selection of American adults in households" (Parry et al., 1973). The restriction to "adults in households" suggests that institutionalized adults were not considered; also, that persons not living in a stable residence may have been excluded. A footnote suggests that, if represented at all, "street people" constituted a very small portion of the total sample since, "Those few women who were neither employed nor full-time housewives, e.g., nonworking, unmarried students, were omitted from our analysis."

Finally, by restricting their sample to adults, the authors biased their description of the patterns of drug use by not including persons under 18. Unlike the street drug user who may represent a small portion of the population, persons under 18 represent a singificant percentage of the population in most metropolitan areas. For example, they represent 30 percent of the San Francisco Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) population.

Data Interpretation

A study by George De Leon (1974) involved 148 men and 60 women to measure the extent of and change in psychopathology during the course of treatment. The author used seven self-report scales. On the basis of these scales he found differences related to both sex and ethnic background. Females in each ethnic group (black, white, and Puerto Rican) scored higher (indicating a greater degree of depression, anxiety, or other indicator of pathology) than their male counterparts. "These findings," the author notes, "point to the possibility that for women, especially white and Hispanic (Puerto Rican), addiction may relate to or express a more serious and complex psychological disturbance." However, what De Leon fails to note is that self-report scales are particularly vulnerable to cultural norms: high scores may reflect a self-perception of deviance from those norms, rather than sickness, per se. It may be that women report themselves as deviant because they believe they are. However, since deviance from norms is not necessarily sickness, to interpret the elevation of self-report scales as sickness, without considering cultural and ethnic norms, is to overlook the probable impact of labeling. An interpretation (of self-report scores) such as the one offered by De Leon can become part of an invidious tautology: female addicts score higher on scales purporting to measure psychopathology; therefore, they are judged to be sicker, are told they are sicker, are treated as if they are sicker and, therefore, score higher on scales measuring sickness (psychopathology) (cf. Chesler, 1972 ; Broverman, 1970; Gordon and Hall, 1974).

TIME/ CODE

NOTE TO TRAINER: DISCUSSION ABOUT CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FEMALE ADDICT

9:25-
9:45

III-B-2

This list represents the viewpoints of one group of trainees. The trainees in your session may generate different items. This brief exercise gives the total group information about how individuals view the female addict. The data give the trainees a "feel" for the group and a starting point to help individuals analyze their approach to women's treatment.

The following are some of the characteristics of the female addict as identified by trainees during the field test.

- low self-esteem
- bad self-image
- no direction
- lack of confidence
- heavy family conflicts
- guilt
- lack of skills
- broken home
- confusion between love and sex
- difficulty dealing with feelings of dependency--dependency or counter-dependency
- poor adult models
- no sense of belonging
- not feeling good about other women, hence not feeling good about themselves
- [illegible]ementary life skills (eg., communication, problem-solving)
- "I'm competent, but my 'sister's not competent"

TIME/ CODE

NOTE TO TRAINER: ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW EXERCISE

10:15- 11:45 The purpose of this exercise is to identify both the information needed for assessment and the needs of a female client.

III-C

FORMS

The **Treatment System Overview** is used to set the stage for the interview. This form gives basic information about the treatment project so that all group members have a common frame of reference. The interviewers assess the client's needs and later (if there is time) discuss whether they think her needs can be met through this treatment system.

The **Client History Form** provides basic information about the client. It gives the interviewers data they can use to formulate their assessment questions; it gives the client some data from which to develop her characterization of the client.

To assist the client-volunteer in developing her characterization, she should be asked to fill out the Client Needs Form before the interview. This will help her focus on the needs and problems of the client she's playing and will help her to remain in the role during the exercise.

After the interview, each small-group member fills out the Client Needs Form. Then the small group writes a composite list on newsprint to help them compare and analyze their perceptions of the client. This is then compared with the client's perceptions of her needs.

Because each small group uses the same forms, a common frame of reference is established for the large group discussion that concludes the exercise.

To ensure that the small groups have as similar an experience as possible, it is extremely important that you discuss how each of you will conduct this exercise. While the small groups are reassembling in the large group meeting room, you should meet briefly with the other trainers to review what each covered in the exercise.

In the process of this exercise several things happen:

1. Since each trainee has an opportunity to interview the client, the exercise reveals a sample of the various interviewing styles used by small-group members. This provides experiential data that can be referred to throughout the course when examining (a) the effects of interviewing styles on clients, (b) the problems in eliciting information from clients, (c) the interactions between counselor and client, and (d) the ways in which the client is stereotyped (as perceived by either counselor or client). You should point out:
    - The way in which information is transmitted and interpreted and how it affects assessment of the client
    - How interviewing styles influence the amount and kind of information given by the client in the interview
2. As small group members discuss their own perceptions and the client's perceptions of her needs, they become aware of information they have missed, assumptions they have made, and conclusions they have drawn in interpreting the interview data. This assists trainees to sharpen their assessment skills.

Trainees will further develop these skills in Modules IV and V when they analyze videotaped interviews.

PURPOSE: To give trainees practice in assessing client's needs

TIME/ CODE	INSTRUCTIONS: ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW EXERCISE
10:15- 11:45 III-C	

Title

ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW EXERCISE

Space Requirements

- One large-group room
- Two small-group rooms

Seating Arrangement

Each small group sits in a circle. In the center of the circle there should be two empty chairs: one for the client and the other for the interviewer.

Materials

- Client Histories
- Client Needs Forms
- Treatment System Overviews

Trainer Instructions

- Define "need" and "problem":

  "Need" is a lack of something necessary, desirable, or useful; implies urgency.

  "Problem" is a complex, unsettled question; a source of worry or concern.

  Adapted from *Webster's Dictionary*

- Explain the exercise.

  The exercise is a simulation of the first of a series of assessment interviews with a female client. The purpose of the interview is to identify the client's needs and problems. At the end of the interview, trainees will be asked to describe those needs and problems.

- Give instructions for the exercise.

  Trainees will be divided into three small groups. Each small group will participate in a role play to assess client needs. A volunteer will play the client. The other trainees in the small group will act as counselor-interviewers, each having four minutes to interview the client. Each interviewer should build upon information obtained by past interviewers. After all the trainees have interviewed the client, the group should have enough information to identify the client's needs and problems.

TIME/ CODE **INSTRUCTIONS: ASSESSMENT INTERVIEW EXERCISE**

10:45-
11:45

III-C

- Divide trainees into three small groups; assign a trainer and small-group room to each.
- Take small group to assigned room.
- Select a volunteer to be the female client. Explain to group that for the next five minutes you will be working with the volunteer to help her establish her role.
- Give trainees the Client History and Treatment System Overview to read while the volunteer and trainer are out of room.
- Ask each trainee to think about four questions she would want answered in an assessment interview.
- Take the client volunteer outside the large-group room to prepare her for the exercise; give her the Client History to read.
- Discuss how she will play the part of the client.
- Caution the volunteer to wait until the third interviewer before she *fully* states her problems.
- Review the Client Needs Form with the volunteer. Ask her to fill it out, and then copy it on newsprint. (This will help strengthen her characterization.)
- Review with the small group their role as counselor-interviewers. In order to have every trainee participate, the interview will be divided into four-minute segments, each segment having a different person as interviewer. Each interviewer is to build on the information obtained by prior interviewers.
- Review the Client Needs Form in trainees' workbooks.
- Tell trainees to take notes on the needs and problems of the client as they are disclosed during the interview.
- Select a group member to be timekeeper (or take the role of the timekeeper yourself).
- Select a group member to be the first interviewer; start the role play; continue around the circle to the right to select the next trainee to play the interviewer.
- After the role play is finished, give trainees five minutes to write out the client's needs and problems and write a composite list on newsprint.
- While the small-group members are writing their observations, take the "client" outside of the room and help her get out of the role she played.
- In the small group, review the client's description of her needs (written on newsprint).
- Discuss the client assessments.
- Ask trainees to compare their assessment with the client's assessment of her needs. How do they differ? How are they similar? Why? What happened in the interview? Can the treatment system meet the needs expressed by this particular client?
- Facilitate the discussion to explore the ways in which the female addict is stereotyped. Did participants stereotype the client? How does stereotyping of female clients take place in treatment programs?
- Discuss the ways in which stereotyping occurs in treatment programs.

CLIENT HISTORY

Form III-C-1

Name: June Dendy
Age: 28
Marital Status: Separated
Number of Children: 2 girls, 8 and 10 years
Drug of Choice Heroin
Employment Background: Clerk typist, Salesgirl, Waitress
Present Employment: None

Client got pregnant with first child during senior year in high school. Dropped out of high school and got married. After her second child was born client went to night school to get her high school diploma. History of marital problems--husband drank and was verbally abusive to client and children. Separated from husband five years ago. Client moved in with her mother and held various jobs to support herself and children. Client's mother currently is taking care of both children.

Client has been unemployed for seven months, during which time her heroin habit has gone from moderate to severe. While she was employed, she was using heroin once or twice a week, for about three months. When in high school, she had tried grass and pills several times but had stopped when she discovered she was pregnant. But, during the last few months of her employment, she began using heroin on a daily basis, and selling "hot" merchandise at her job to supplement her income. She says Frank, whom she met six months ago and has been dating regularly since, encouraged her to use heroin more often, saying she could support her habit by fencing his stuff. Although she was never caught, she was afraid, and her fear was one reason for her leaving her job.

Since leaving her job, she has devoted most of her energy to fencing stolen goods around the neighborhood and prostitution. Her mother is becoming increasingly resentful of caring for the children, and is putting pressure on June to get treatment and get a job. June feels that her mother is being unreasonable, but does recognize that getting off heroin is a good idea. She feels at loose ends when not on dope, but, more importantly, she's worried about getting busted, especially since Frank was busted three weeks ago for housebreaking.

She says she's really scared and wants help getting herself together.

FORM III-C-2

TREATMENT SYSTEM OVERVIEW

METHADONE TREATMENT PROGRAM

TYPE OF PROGRAM--Private, nonprofit program under direction of the County Regional Drug Abuse Commission. Provides 90 percent of its outpatient care to narcotic addicts and provides inpatient care through General Hospital, which also works with other area drug abuse programs. Center located in a converted residence.

SERVICES--Methadone maintenance, medical-surgical treatment. Also: chemical and drug free detoxification, crisis and legal intervention, educational and family counseling, encounter and self-awareness groups, other group interaction, group and individual therapy, vocational training, job placement, meditation, recreational therapy, social services, supervised work assignments, therapeutic community, Big Brother and Big Sister Program, referral.

ADMISSION--Must reside in county, be 18 or over, and have no severe medical or psychiatric problems. Hospital patients must meet OEO poverty criteria.

CLIENTELE--All age groups 18 and above but predominantly 21-28. Greatest number use natural opiates, but some abuse of all drugs except tranquilizers. Majority unemployed, unskilled.

STAFF--(Combined personnel of Center and Hospital working with Methadone Treatment Program) Full time: psychologist, 3 R.N.s, business administrator, 3 counselors. Part time: 2 psychiatrists, physician. 2 vocational rehabilitation personnel, program administrator, 2 pharmacists, community worker. Volunteers, part time: physician, psychologist, R.N., nursing aide, 3 paramedics, 22 counselors, 5 clergymen, pharmacist, 2 public education personnel. Former drug abusers: full-time caseworker, part-time caseworker. Center budgeted vacancies: psychologist, R.N., 3 counselors.

Form III-C-3 Your Role: ____________

CLIENT NEEDS FORM

In the space above, write whether you are acting as the client, or as an interviewer. State your assessment of the client's needs based on the information obtained in the interview.

CLIENT NEEDS

WORKSHEET IX-3
THIRD PARTY PAYMENTS

The module you have been given is Module I: Introduction to Third Party Payments.

SESSION 1

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this session is to establish an appropriate learning environment by outlining the course content, explaining the course structure and providing a general explanation of the third party payments system.

At the end of this session participants will be able to–

- define "third party payments";
- identify the three parties in a third party payments system;
- identify at least five implications for a drug abuse treatment program seeking third party payments ;
- identify the two methods by which service providers are reimbursed in a third party payments system;
- identify the two types of third party payers.

SESSION: 1

SESSION REQUIREMENTS	
PERSONNEL	Trainer
TIME	2 hours
EQUIPMENT	Chalkboard Flip chart easel
MATERIALS	Pretests Prepared flip charts (F-1, F-2, F-3) Note pad and pencils for each participant Handout H-1 (Sample Daily Schedule)
FACILITY	Large-group meeting room

Session 1: INTRODUCTION

TIME/ FORM	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT/ REFERENCES	ACTIVITIES
30 min. LG	Pretest	PRETEST • Administer pretest.
15 min. LG M-L/D	Chalkboard	INTRODUCTION • Introduce each trainer/facilitator. • Explain purpose of the course: *This course is intended to provide information that will help you (a) assess feasibility of obtaining Third Party Payments and (b) determine required actions for obtaining TPPs.* (Write on chalkboard.) • Note that the course provides guidelines but cannot specify each step required to obtain TPPs.
	Handout (H-1) (Daily Schedule) Flip Chart (F-1)	• Outline the course content and daily schedule. *(Write on newsprint and see sample flip charts at end of activities sheets.)* • Discuss the logistics *(when, where, any rules)*. • Answer any questions.
15 min.		WARM-UP EXERCISE • Explain purpose of the exercise: *This exercise should help you become acquainted with each other.* • Use whatever technique you have found to be useful to help trainees identify names and/or other associations *(e.g., treatment modality represented)*.
45 min. LG M-L/D	p. 17	INTRODUCTION TO THIRD PARTY PAYMENTS • Define third party payments: *A third party payment is a payment for a service provided to an individual by an individual or organization that neither receives nor provides the service.*

TIME/ FORM	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT/ REFERENCES	ACTIVITIES
		INTRODUCTION TO THIRD PARTY PAYMENTS (CONT'D)
	p. 18	• Explain key terms: client *(service recipient)* provider *(service provider)* third party *(e.g., John Hancock Co., Medicaid).* service *(assistance given to client)*
	Flip Charts F-2, F-3	• Explain interrelationships among client, provider, and payer. *(See sample flip charts)*
	Figure 1.1 Figure 1.2	• Distinguish types of third party payers: *Public reimbursers* Federal/state programs supporting services to various categories of individuals, i.e., Medicaid, Medicare, title XX, Vocational Rehabilitation, etc. *Private reimbursers* Profit making *(e.g., Aetna, John Hancock)* Nonprofit *(e.g., Blue Cross/Blue Shield)*
		• Discuss the fact that public reimbursers presently provide most payments for addicts.
		• Note that to obtain TPPs, the eligibility of the client, provider, and service must be established.
		• Mention that each type of eligibility will be discussed in greater detail in a later session.
		• Note some of the difficulties existent within the third party payment's system, for example: Federal regulations regarding eligibility vary considerably between programs. State criteria vary between states and within each program *(i.e., no two states have the same set of criteria for Medicaid).*

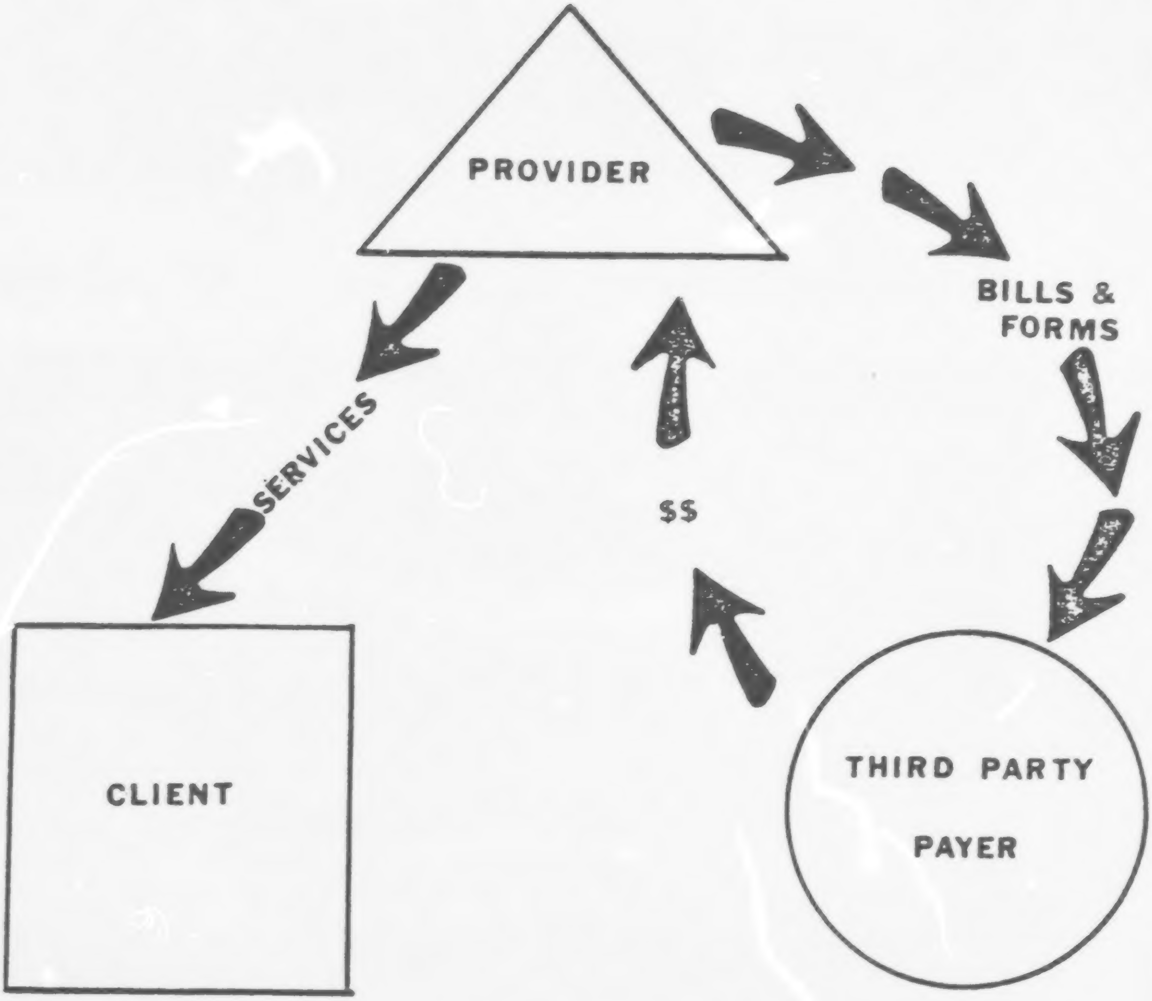
TIME/ FORM	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT/ REFERENCES	ACTIVITIES
	pp. 23-26	INTRODUCTION TO THIRD PARTY PAYMENTS (CONT'D) • List some of the benefits offered a drug treatment program by third party payments, for example: Sources for required "match" funds Reduction of dependency on a single funding source Expansion or improvement of the program Preparation for National Health Insurance Improved program credibility
15 min. LG D		DISCUSSION • Conduct discussion about implications for treatment programs of TPPs. *The purpose of this discussion is to help you identify important issues relating to TPPs (e.g., charging clients, staff requirements, confidentiality, record keeping, etc.)* • Identify those issues that will be discussed in the course. • Answer any questions.

COURSE CONTENT

- INTRODUCTION
- HSF REGULATIONS
- KEY ISSUES
- THIRD PARTY PAYERS
- CONFIDENTIALITY
- MANAGEMENT & STAFF ISSUES
- FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT
- PROJECT/SSA PLANNING

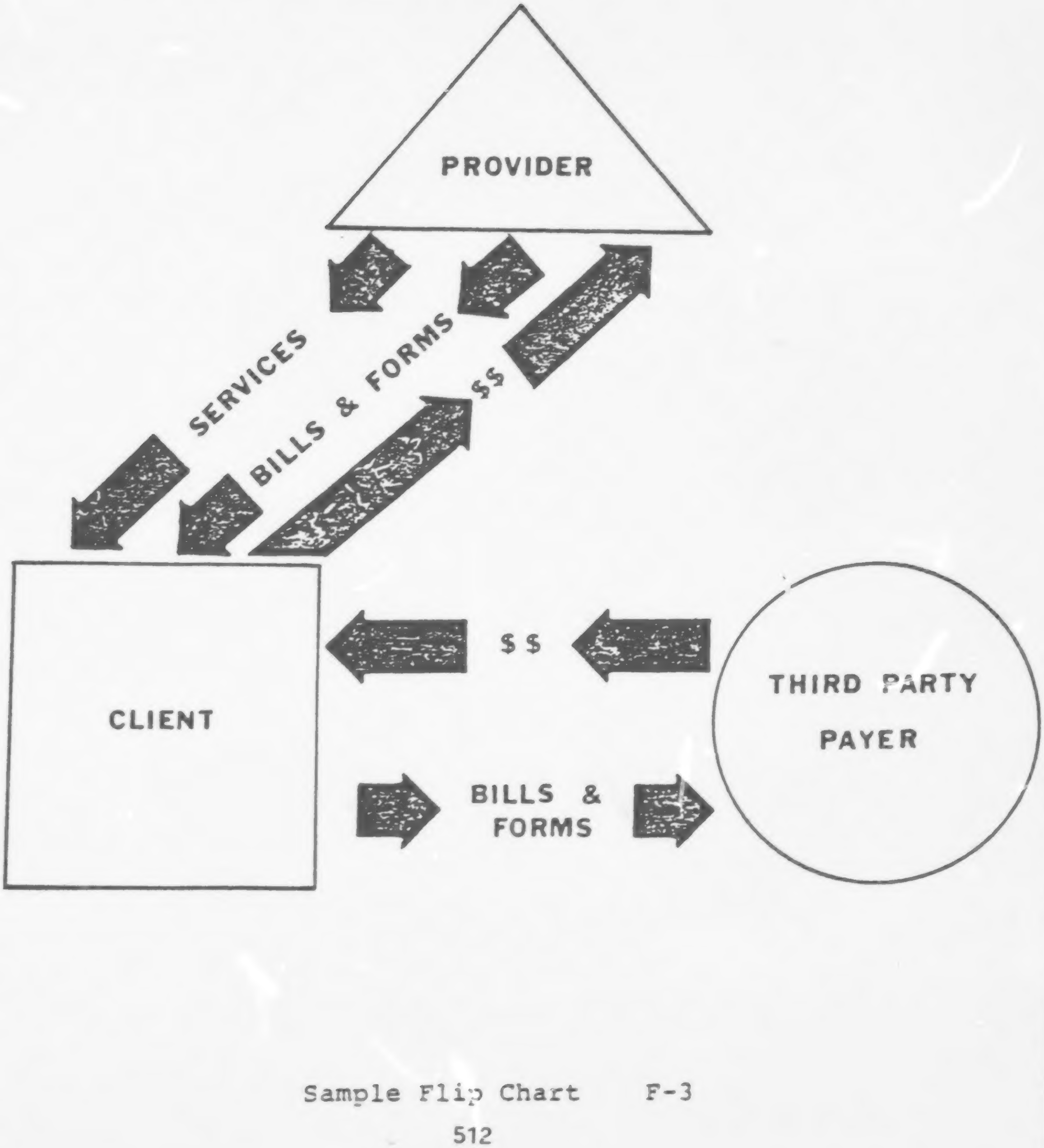
Sample Flip Chart F-1

DIRECT REIMBURSEMENT
OF SERVICE PROVIDER


PROVIDER
BILLS &
FORMS
SERVICES
$$
CLIENT
THIRD PARTY
PAYER

Sample Flip Chart F-2

INDIRECT REIMBURSEMENT OF SERVICE PROVIDER


PROVIDER
SERVICES
BILLS & FORMS
$$
CLIENT
$ $
THIRD PARTY PAYER
BILLS & FORMS

Sample Flip Chart F-3

WORKSHEET IX-4
INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATIONS

As each individual makes his/her presentation, take notes in the space provided below. Then fill out the two feedback forms that follow.

FEEDBACK ON TRAINING DESIGN

Please circle the number, next to each question, that most closely approximates your perceptions of the training design. If you wish to comment, space has been provided below each question.

How well did--

	Needs Much Improvement					*Excellent*
1. the training goal reflect the training need selected?	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. the behavioral objectives relate to the training goal?	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. the behavioral objectives specify:						
terminal behavior?	0	1	2	3	4	5
criteria?	0	1	2	3	4	5
conditions?	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. Were the behavioral objectives realistic?	0	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK ON TRAINING DESIGN: continued

How well did--	*Needs Much Improvement*					*Excellent*
5. the learning tasks relate to the behavioral objectives?	0	1	2	3	4	5
6. each training method lead to accomplishment of the behavioral objectives?						
Method #1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Method #2	0	1	2	3	4	5
Method #3	0	1	2	3	4	5
7. the time periods indicated in the design match the actual time required in delivery?	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. the materials and equipment facilitate learning?	0	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK TO THE TRAINER(S)

NAME OF TRAINER: ______________________

Please circle the number next to each question that most closely approximates your perceptions of the trainer. If you wish to comment, space has been provided below each question.

How well did the trainer--

	Needs Much Improvement					*Excellent*
1. state the objectives? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. help the group to understand the purpose of what they were doing as they went along? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. give instructions? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. explain or clarify information? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
5. encourage discussion by asking good questions? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK TO THE TRAINER(S): continued

How well did the trainer--	*Needs Much Improvement*					*Excellent*
6. encourage discussion by letting others speak? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
7. encourage and accept criticism from others? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. show sensitivity to the group's feelings and needs? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5
9. help the participants to share their ideas and experiences with one another? (Comment)	0	1	2	3	4	5

Any general comments or suggestions?

MODULE X

MODULE X: FORMAL AND INFORMAL EVALUATION: PROVIDING CLOSURE **TIME:** 2 HOURS 50 MINUTES

GOALS

- To impart knowledge of evaluation procedures
- To enable trainers to experience closure and to begin to build a model for closing their own training events
- To give all participants an opportunity to get feedback from the group for themselves.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, participants will be able to:

- Describe at least two techniques that move a group to closure
- Describe at least one technique for coping with re-entry difficulties
- Define the following terms:
    - Reaction
    - Learning
    - Behavior change
    - Results.
- Name one formal and two informal means of evaluation.

MATERIALS

- Flip chart or newsprint
- Easel/tape
- Felt-tip markers
- Participant Manual
- Photocopies of the Posttest and the Posttest Answer Sheet

WORKSHEET X-1
GUIDED DISCUSSION

PURPOSE:

To provide a structure through which participants can anticipate what awaits them upon their return home.

MATERIALS:

None

INSTRUCTIONS:

Take turns completing the following sentence:

"I think what is going to happen when I go home is ____________________________."

TIME:

20 minutes

REFERENCE SHEET X-1
"LAUNDRY LIST" OF RE-ENTRY ISSUES

- Anticipation of reception at home by spouse, significant other(s), roommate.
- Anticipation of reception of colleagues, boss, clients.
- Feelings about TOT group and leaving it.
- Finding a network for continuing professional growth.
- Feelings about living and learning in a close environment--attractions, disadvantages.
- Achieving closure.
- Strategies for change in one's own training behaviors (action planning).

REFERENCE SHEET X-2
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bloom, B., Hastings, J.T., and Madaus, G. Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.

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SELECTED READING X-1

EVALUATING LEARNING

Learning Defined

There are several definitions of learning. For the purpose of this module, learning is defined as: the principles, facts, and techniques that were understood and exhibited by the participants. In other words, it does not include on-the-job use of these principles, facts, and techniques. This application will be discussed later in regard to behavior change.

Guides for Evaluating Learning

Several guides should be used in establishing a procedure for measuring the amount of learning that takes place.

1. The learning of each participant should be measured so that quantitative results can be determined.
2. Evaluation should be made before and after training so that any learning can be related to the program.
3. As far as possible, the learning should be measured on an objective basis.
4. Where possible, a control group (a group not receiving the training) should be compared with the group of trainees.
5. Where possible, the evaluation results should be analyzed statistically so that learning can be demonstrated through indications such as correlation or level of confidence.

It should be evident that evaluation of learning is much more difficult than evaluation of reaction. For example, a knowledge of statistics may be needed to plan the evaluation procedures, analyze the data, and interpret the results. In many cases, the training department may need to utilize outside assistance (Kirkpatrick, 1967).

Pre-posttests are often used to measure learning. When using pre-posttests to evaluate participant learning, you should be aware of several issues.

First, participants may have negative reactions to pre-posttests because these tests are reminders of unhappy educational experiences. It is important that participants know that you are giving them these tests to improve the training program, and that they will not receive grades, nor will their supervisors be given results.

Second, taking open-ended or multiple-choice tests is a skill. Many of us may have taken enough tests to have developed that skill. However, there are others who have not, particularly in the field of drug abuse. For some, pre-posttests may be their first exposure to such a test. It may be difficult for these trainees to answer all of the questions within the allotted time because they are also learning how to take the test.

The third issue is language. Pre-posttests assume that participants have a certain level of comprehension of English; this is not always the case. For many drug abuse workers (and all of us other folk) the English written by test developers is not easily understood.

The fourth issue involves the phrasing of questions. Although pre-posttests are designed to measure principles, facts, and techniques, unclear questions may affect participants' responses. If participants do not understand the questions, they may choose answers that do not indicate what they have learned in the training program.

The fifth issue involves the training: whether the material in the test is covered by the trainer. Participants may have learned much useful information as a result of training, but if the content on the test is not covered, the test scores will reflect what wasn't taught, not what was learned.

When using a pre-posttest, Kirkpatrick (1967) recommends:

1. The pretest should be given to all participants prior to training.
2. If possible, it should also be given to a control group that is comparable to the experimental group.
3. The pretests should be analyzed in two ways: (a) the total score of each person should be tabulated, and then (b) the responses to each item should be tabulated in terms of right and wrong answers. This second tabulation not only enables a trainer to evaluate the program, but also gives him some idea of the knowledge and understanding of the group before training. This means that during training he can stress those items most frequently misunderstood.
4. After training, the same test or its equivalent should be given to participants and to the control group. A comparison of pretest and posttest scores and responses to individual items can then be made. A statistical analysis of this data will reveal the effectiveness of the program in terms of learning.

Evaluating Skills Learned (Kirkpatrick, 1967)

It is relatively easy to measure the learning of specific skills. Training programs involved in teaching work simplification, interviewing skills, induction techniques, reading improvement, effective speaking, and effective writing could use the following activities for evaluation: demonstrations, individual performance of the skill being taught, and a role-playing situation followed by discussions. The trainer can organize these in such a way that he will obtain a fairly objective evaluation of the learning that has happened.

MEASURING BEHAVIOR CHANGE

Although a participant may have demonstrated learning in the training session, there is no assurance that he will incorporate the new learning so that his behavior on the job will change. Several conditions must exist for the participant to benefit from training (Kirkpatrick, 1967):

1. The trainee must have an opportunity to put the learning into effect and his supervisors must encourage him to do so.
2. He must realize that applying the new learning will make his job easier and more efficient.
3. He must be motivated to improve his job performance.

Kirkpatrick (1967) states:

> Evaluation of training programs in terms of on-the-job behavior is more difficult than the reaction and learning evaluations described in the two previous sections. A more scientific approach is needed, and many factors must be considered. During the last few years a number of attempts have been made, and more and more effort is being put in this direction.

Guides to Evaluating Behavior Change (Kirkpatrick, 1967)

Several guides should be followed in evaluating training programs in terms of behavioral changes:

1. A systematic appraisal should be made of on-the-job performance before and after training.

2. The appraisal of performance should be made by one or more of the following groups (the more the better):

   a. The person receiving the training

   b. His superior or superiors

   c. His subordinates

   d. His peers or other people thoroughly familiar with his performance

3. A statistical analysis should be made to compare performance before and after training, and relate changes to the training program.

4. The posttraining appraisal should be made three months or more after the training so that the trainees have an opportunity to put into practice what they have learned. Subsequent appraisals may add to the validity of the study.

5. A control group should be used.

As difficult and time consuming as it may seem to evaluate behavior change, that is really what training is all about--improved performance on the job. If the needs assessment was accurate, if the behavioral objectives were appropriate to the need, if the training was adequately designed to accomplish the objectives, and if learning was accomplished, then the trainees should demonstrate behavior change on the job. Behavior change exhibited on the job leads us to the last category of evaluation: measuring results.

MEASURING RESULTS

The goals of many training programs can be stated in terms of results such as reduced turnover, fewer clients dropping out of the program, improved efficiency, improved morale (which, it is hoped, will lead to some of the previously stated results). From an evaluation standpoint it would be best to evaluate training programs in terms of the desired results, but this is not possible. There are so many complicating factors that it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to determine how much improvement is due to training as compared to other factors. Only training programs that have clear, distinguishable, and specific results can be evaluated in those terms; for example, those teaching clerical skills, treatment planning, accounting procedures, etc.

SUMMARY

The two major purposes of training evaluation are improvement of training design and delivery, and assessment of needs for future training.

The four elements to be measured--reaction, learning, behavior change, and results--are best and most accurately measured by using *varied* methods and instruments. Relevant information should be obtained from everyone connected with the program: the trainers, the participants, and the supervisors on the job.

REFERENCES

Kirkpatrick, Donald L. Evaluation of Training. In Robert L. Craig & Lester R. Bittel, (Eds.), Training and Development Handbook. New York: McGraw - Hill Book Co., 1967.

SELECTED READING X-2

HOW TO EVALUATE TRAINING

HOW TO EVALUATE TRAINING

Evaluation needs to be planned. It is a process that begins with the formulation of behavioral objectives, continues during training delivery, and ends long after the training is completed.

Designing useful evaluation measures has always been a difficult problem. Those who pay for training want to assess their investment. Those who receive training want to know what progress they have made, and those who deliver training want to ascertain whether the objectives are valid, whether they were accomplished, and whether the training provided skills that will help participants on the job. No one questions the need for evaluation. However, no one has yet been able to design evaluations that are as precise and objective as they should be. Four elements of evaluation are:

- Reaction: How well did participants like the program?
- Learning: What principles, facts, and techniques were learned?
- Behavior: What changes in job behavior resulted from the program?
- Results: What tangible results did the training have on the treatment program?

MEASURING PARTICIPANT REACTION TO TRAINING (Kirkpatrick, 1967)

Participant reaction refers to how well the trainees liked a particular part of the training program. Training will not be very effective if participants do not accept the material presented. Evaluation reaction means assessing the feelings of participants about the training. This type of evaluation does not include actual measurement of learning, although you might want to ask participants if they learned skills they can use on the job.

Reaction to training is the easiest element to measure; however, you must be sure the questions you ask elicit the information you want to find out from participants. "How did you like the hard-working trainers?" is a question that rarely elicits useful information.

Guides for Evaluating Reaction

1. Determine what you want to find out.
2. Use a form for comments about those items determined in Step 1.
3. Design the form so that the reactions can be tabulated and quantified.
4. Make the forms anonymous for more honest reactions.
5. Allow space for additional comments not covered by the questions.
6. Design your form to elicit the information you need, whether this information involves the reactions to the subject matter, to the training techniques

(use of lecture vs. discussion), or to the performance of the trainers in various modules.

7. Solicit participant reactions to training at the end of each day and at the end of a program. Daily evaluations of participants' reactions provide the trainers with useful feedback and facilitate the training process.

Methods used to evaluate participant reactions are verbal feedback sessions and written questionnaires. Questionnaires should be structured so that participants can express their reactions numerically (by choosing a number that closely approximates their feelings). Questionnaires designed in this manner can be quickly tabulated and quantified. For example:

1. Was this session worthwhile? (No) 0-1-2-3-4-5 (Yes)

2. Do you think it will help you on your job? (No) 0-1-2-3-4-5 (Yes)

Be sure to include some open-ended questions and space for other comments to demonstrate that you're really interested in what they have to say.

MEASURING LEARNING (Kirkpatrick, 1967)

It is important to recognize that favorable reaction to a program does not ensure learning. All of us have attended meetings during which the leader or speaker used enthusiasm, showmanship, visual aids, and illustrations, but very little content, in his presentation. He said practically nothing of value--but he said it very well.

SELECTED READING X-3

EVALUATION AND TRAINING: BASIC INFORMATION

by

Marc Hunter

MODELS OF EVALUATION

There are several models of evaluation, all or parts of which might be used. Some of the most popular models are discussed below.

I. Experimental Design

This model uses experimental and control groups. From the target population (trainees/learners), individuals are randomly chosen to be either the group that gets the training/treatment (experimental), or the "control group." Measures are taken of the relevant indicators of success (for example, knowledge of basic course content/skills) before the program starts and after it ends, for participants in both the experimental (trained) and "control" (not trained) groups. If the gains (increases from pre-test scores to post-test scores) demonstrated by the experimental group are greater than those of the control group, the training program is considered a success.

II. Time Series Design

This model involves taking a series of measurements (such as urinalysis data on drug treatment clients, for example) at periodic intervals before the training program begins, and continuing those measurements periodically after the program ends. When these measures are plotted on a graph, trends in the data can be observed. It then becomes possible to see if the measures immediately before and after the training program are a continuation of earlier patterns, or if they represent a decisive change. Decision changes, in a time series evaluation, would be attributed to the training program.

III. Multiple Time Series Design

This model is similar to the time series model, with the addition of a "control factor." The control factor is that the same measures being taken periodically for participants in the training program are also taken, over the same period, on a similar group or institution for comparison. Again, the measures are plotted on a graph. In this model, two conditions must be met before success may be attributed to the training program. First, there must be decisive changes in the measures taken just before and after training. Secondly, there should be no decisive changes in the comparative measures taken on similar groups or institutions which were not involved in the training.

IV. Non-Equivalent Control Group

In this model there is no random assignment to experimental (training) and control (no training) as there would be in the true experimental design. Individuals or groups with similar characteristics are used as controls. Non-randomized controls are generally called "comparison groups." "Before and after" measures are taken for both groups and the results are compared. As in the experimental design, if the gains demonstrated by the experimental group are greater than those of the control group, the training program is considered a success.

V. Before-and-After Model

This model involves taking measures on the trainee group before and after training. The measures usually are in the form of pre- and post-tests on the major course content. With various modifications (including the use of quasi-experimental procedures), this is the basic model presently being used by the National Drug Abuse Training Center and by the Regional Training Centers of the National Training System. This model need not be limited to pre- and post-test measures. It could include a series of measures on the target population, target sites, and trainees both before and after the training event to evaluate it formatively as well as summatively. An ideal expansion of the simple before-and-after model is outlined below:

A. "Before" Activities

1. Identify target population to be trained.
2. Conduct task analysis and training needs survey with target population.
3. Tabulate, categorize and analyze results of task analysis and needs survey.
4. Identify areas of content in which training is needed, based on the results of #3.
5. Develop behavioral learning objectives for the course.
6. Develop course content and training materials.
7. Develop pre- and post-test and other evaluative instruments.

B. "During" Activities

1. Initially, present the course in-house to target trainees.

2. Collect pre-post, and other evaluative data on all trainees.

C. "After" Activities

1. Follow-up on trainees in their "back-home" setting, using self-reported training needs and/or post-training action plans (which should be obtained from trainees before they leave the course) as a guide for follow-up data collection.

2. Analyze the follow-up data to determine the relationship between end of course (post-test) performance and field (on-job) performance.

3. Establish a criterion performance level for the post-test, based on the results of the analysis.

4. Deliver the training course to target trainees at several different sites in the field, collecting pre-post and other evaluative data on all trainees.

5. The training course is considered successful when 70% of the trainees in two successive field deliveries of the course have met the established performance criteria for that course.

The expanded version of the before-and-after models discussed in this outline is a certification type of evaluation. In this respect it would be more accurate to call it training system validation, which is one of the many kinds of evaluation.

The models we have discussed represent some of the basic ways in which training might be evaluated. Again, there are many ways to evaluate a training event which have not been discussed in this paper. A list of references which are relevant to evaluation follows for the convenience of those who wish to investigate evaluation theories and methods further.

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Bloom, B., Hastings, J.T., & Madaus, G. Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971

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SELECTED READING X-4

EVALUATION BY TRAINERS

New Jersey Community Action Training Institute, Community Action Training: A Handbook for Trainers. Trenton: NJCATI, 1968.

EVALUATION BY TRAINERS

After the program, get all the trainers together for a final *Experiencing, Identifying, Analyzing, Generalizing* session. Use all the information you have--the trainers' observations and reactions to the session, the trainees' reactions and recommendations, comments of observers and consultants, any tape recordings of the session and opinions of the trainees' supervisors and the agency (if these are available). Focus on:

What Happened During the Session

1. Look for the same things about the total program that you looked for during the sessions.
2. Look for any overall patterns of behavior (by trainers, trainees or both) that moved things along or slowed them down.
3. For future use, note the things that went well.
4. Look at the problems that came up. Figure ways to avoid them in the future.
5. Leave some time for brainstorming about new ideas.

How the Session Compared with Your Original Plan

1. Do training objectives still seem clear and realistic? Were they appropriate? Did you achieve the objectives? What was especially helpful in achieving them and what hindered achievement?
2. Did the plan work out the way you expected it to? Where did the session not follow the plan? Why? Was this plan helpful for reaching your goals?
3. Was there enough time for *Experiencing, Identifying, Analyzing, Generalizing*--especially the last three steps (IAG)? Did people participate? Why or why not?
4. How would you change the plan if you had it to do over again? Be specific. What would you include or leave out? What new things would you try?

On-the-Job Evaluation

The primary aim of your training program is improving people's performance in their work.

1. Ask for reports by trainees of critical incidents in which they believe the program changed their behavior. This approach to evaluation reinforces the learning. It encourages trainees to continue the *Identifying, Generalizing* process beyond the program and to apply it to their on-the-job experiences.
2. Conduct a follow-up group interview of trainees. Discuss experiences they have had since the training program.
3. Ask for reports by supervisors and other co-workers on whether or not the trainee has in fact improved. The more precisely you define the change you expect, the more exactly you can structure your training session and relate it to questions you will ask co-workers.

For the Record

Write a report of your evaluation for your training sponsor or for your own file. Include:

1. A short description of your training goals and plan
2. Information on the participants: number, job categories, agency for whom they work
3. Place, dates, and number of hours of training
4. Methods of evaluation
5. Results of evaluation
6. Evaluation of consultants and special materials used
7. Conclusions
8. Recommendations for future training

SAMPLE FORMAL EVALUATION TOOLS

Sample Form

WORKSHEET: PLANNING FOR EVALUATION

HOW WILL YOU MEASURE—	INSTRUMENT OR PROCESS TO BE USED	WHEN FEEDBACK IS TO BE COLLECTED	HOW/WHEN FEEDBACK IS TO BE USED
1. Trainee prerequisite skills			
2. Trainee understanding of objectives			
3. Trainee achievement of learning tasks			
4. Trainee opinions during course			
5. Trainee achievement of behavioral objectives			
6. Trainee opinions at end of course			
7. Trainee performance back on the job			

QUICK FEEDBACK SHEET

Please answer the following questions by circling the number that comes closest to how you feel right now.

	No, Waste of Time										*Yes, Very Worthwhile*
1. Do you think this session was worthwhile?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Not At All										*Very Much*
2. How much do you feel you personally needed this session?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Not At All										*Very Much*
3. How much do you feel others in the group needed this session?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Poorly										*Very Well*
4. How well do you think the trainer(s) did his/their job(s)?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

What did you like most about the session?

What did you like least about it?

Any other comments or suggestions?

Sample Form

PARTICIPANT REACTION SHEET

1. I think this session was

2. During this session I felt

3. I wonder if

4. I learned

5. I think other people in the group

Sample Form

GENERAL EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

(To be filled out by participants)

1. List five of the program's most important objectives. How close do you think the program came to reaching the objectives you've listed?

2. What parts of the program did you think were useful?

   ( ) All of it

   ( ) Most of it

   ( ) Some of it

   ( ) None of it

   Please comment --

3. Did you get as much out of the program as you expected? Explain why or why not.

4. Were you satisfied with the amount of factual information that was presented in this program? Please comment.

5. Trainees participated to a certain extent in planning the program. Do you think--

( ) trainees should have been more involved in planning it

( ) trainees should have been less involved in planning it

( ) the involvement of trainees in planning the program was about right

Please comment.

6. The program was designed to encourage trainees to share experiences and ideas with each other. Do you feel there was enough opportunity for everyone to do this? Please comment.

7. What problems or dissatisfaction did you have with the way the program was scheduled?

8. If you were to begin the program all over again, how would you want it to be different?

Sample Form

INSERVICE EDUCATION REPORT

DATE: ______________________ TIME: From __________ to __________
(Month) (Day) (Year)

TRAINING COORDINATOR: ______________________________

SPEAKER: ______________________________

TOPIC: ______________________________

____

RESOURCE MATERIALS USED: ______________________________

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MAIN POINTS COVERED: ______________________________

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(Use back for Attendance)

PARTICIPANTS

NAME JOB TITLE

Sample Form

FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION

A few weeks ago you took part in a training program. We want to find out just how helpful that training was. Please answer every question, even if you write "I don't know" or "This question doesn't apply to me."

Your answers will help us improve future training sessions. Please take the time to completely answer all the questions.

DATE ____________________

JOB TITLE ____________________

Training is effective only if it helps you do a better job. Ask yourself if you have changed the way you do your job.

If you have, try to describe those changes in the space below, for example, something that has happened to you, or something you have done since the training that shows how you have changed.

(If you don't think you've changed at all, please say so. PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE THIS SPACE BLANK--WE WILL THINK YOU MISSED IT.)

FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION continued

1. I feel I understand my job--

   ☐ less than I did before the training program
   ☐ about as well as I did before the training program
   ☐ better than I did before the training

2. I feel I understand my co-workers' jobs--

   ☐ less than I did before the training
   ☐ about as well as I did before the training
   ☐ better than I did before the training

3. Some of the skills a good (counselor, supervisor, etc.) needs are:

4. Some common fears or attitudes that clients have when they first enter treatment are:

5. Some specific things we can do to overcome these fears or attitudes are:

FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION continued

6. In general, I think that I work with new clients--

( ) worse than I did before the training
( ) about as well as I did before the training
( ) better than I did before the training

Please explain the answer you chose:

7. If asked to, I can explain what I am expected to do on my job--

( ) less than I could before the training
( ) about as well as I could before the training
( ) better than I could before the training

I would still have some difficulty understanding and explaining:

8. I think our staff communicates with one another and works together--

( ) less than it did before the training program
( ) about as well as it did before the training
( ) better than it did before the training

Please explain the answer you chose:

SELECTED READING X-5

TAKING LEARNING BACK HOME

TAKING LEARNING BACK HOME*

One way to think of the "sojourn" at a NDACTRD training event is a trip in social as well as geographical space. Each participant came from an enduring back-home culture (job, community, family) to take part in the formation of a temporary but intense "learning island." Although this "island" is sanctioned by the surrounding community, its folkways are different, and presumably they induce some change in the traveler. When he or she returns, some stresses and strains are likely as an attempt to resolve the differing demands placed by membership in the NDACTRD culture and membership in back-home groups.

Coming to NDACTRD, participants brought certain established ways of behaving--attitudes, ideas, loyalties--generated and supported by membership in back-home groups. At NDACTRD, everyone went through a more or less stressful process of altering and adjusting: encountering new attitudes, new customs, new language, new methods of operating groups, and new ideas. In returning to the mainland, participants are faced with the problem of relating the different demands of the two cultures in which they are a member.

Quite clearly, how this is resolved will depend very much on experiences at the conference. There are several different possibilities:

- The "flip-flop" reaction. At home, the participant had accepted the norms and ways of doing things without question; at NDACTRD, he or she did the same thing. This presumes that the two cultures bear no realistic relation to each other. Then, when the participant returned home, he or she will behave on the job, at home, and in the community precisely as before.

If, however, the two cultures bear some relation to each other, then conflict between them may appear. The conflict may be resolved in several ways:

- The "tourist" reaction. The participant came to NDACTRD as a visitor, and never became deeply involved, retained back-home membership, took figurative snapshots of the inhabitants for showing to the folks at home, and returned to the mainland culture with a suitcase full of interesting trinkets, but little more. Basically, he or she never left home.

- The "expatriate" reaction. The participant came to training anxious to receive the word, convinced of the inferiority and tastelessness of back-home group memberships. He or she became deeply immersed in the NDACTRD culture, and, returning home, felt unhappy that other groups do not have the warmth and productivity of the NDACTRD community.

Note that neither the tourist nor expatriate reaction (and everyone reflects both of these to some degree) involves change on the part of the person in an enduring, on-the-job sense. Both the tourist and the expatriate were, perhaps, relatively sure of their group memberships before they traveled to the NDACTRD island. What kinds of reactions may involve some real change?

---

*Adapted from NTL workshop materials by Bo Razak, former NDACTRD trainer program design specialist.

- The "missionary" reaction. The participant may have come to NDACTRD determined to get ideas, techniques, and approaches to working with people which can be spread to others. Changes in others were seen as the primary target, with the participant cast in the role of the bearer of glad tidings.

- The "mystic" reaction. As the participant moved through the conference, he or she operated on the assumption that he or she were the only target of learning and change, and that relations on the job with others were of minor importance. Back home, he or she might have said, "I can't tell you what I learned, but it was a powerful experience."

- The "learner-critic" reaction. The participant took a tough-minded, reality-testing approach during the conference--comparing and contrasting the two cultures, accepting the fact that they differ in certain respects, and working out the conflicting group membership, values, and ideas involved.

Obviously, all of the reactions described above are exaggerated. However, the last one is perhaps the ideal. Taking the learner-critic role is not easy. There are many barriers:

1. It involves being "marginal," trying to keep both memberships, and risking rejection--actual or fantasied--from both groups.

2. It involves balancing the here-and-now demands of the back-home situation, which are extremely potent, along with the here-and-now demands of the conference.

3. It involves a job that is "for keeps"--and trying new things from the NDACTRD culture may feel different from when participants were in simulation scenes at the conference and it all felt usable.

4. It involves being critical of what is going on back at the mainland, and this may generate hostility or uneasiness in others.

5. It involves a job that is primarily task-centered and which is very different from the learning-centered approach of the NDACTRD culture. Experiments, trying on insights for size--all of these may wither away when the heat is on.

6. It involves applying learnings from the conference that may still be relatively unclear, confused, and not even capable of being tested for relevance and helpfulness to the job.

But there are also driving forces toward taking the learner-critic role back home:

1. NDACTRD membership may have become internalized strongly enough to serve as a source of support ("What would my TOT buddies think of this?").

2. Participants may have "learned how to learn"--becoming more comfortable with an experimental, feedback-using approach to working with people. In a group situation on-the-job, participants can begin to apply process skills--their growing ability to sense difficulties, make a tentative diagnosis, act, and get feedback. Participants can learn from data instead of being petrified at the thought of making mistakes.

3. The back-home organization should have a positive stake in what was learned at the conference. Few organizations wish to prevent their staff from growing; there is an expectation that the organization will benefit from participation of its members in an NDACTRD experience.

4. Participants may have become far more aware of themselves in a group situation, and see more clearly how they are related to others on the job. This added sensitivity may supply new motivation and skills for being a learner-critic.

Some actions to help take the learner-critic role more effectively:

1. Slow down, take it easy, sort out learnings, clarify before trying to take new actions in the back-home situation.

2. Think through the relevance of conference learnings to the job. Which TOT methods can be transferred bodily? Which ones need translation? Is it possible to operate more effectively using the insights gained as a person? In which kinds of situations is one's own personal growth the only transferable thing?

3. Look for support on-the-job from others who have been to the conference, or have active interests of a similar sort. (This implies not an expatriate clique for wound-licking and mutual congratulations, but a sounding board for reality-testing purposes.)

4. Take a diagnostic apprroach, alsways keeping in mind that you are part of the situation. Step 1 in such a diagnosis may well be: How do the others back home see me now as I re-enter the organization? What's been happening while I was away? Such a diagnosis leads to planning with others, not an arbitrary series of steps which one imposes on others by guile or force.

5. Consider using added resources for further learning and growth--NDACTRD conferees and staff in your area, training opportunities during the year, consultation, or membership in training organizations or professional societies. TOT is not a finishing school in training skills.

6. Relax.

GLOSSARY OF TRAINING TERMS

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ACCEPTANCE NEEDS: a phrase referring to an individual's desire to be liked and accepted.

ACCOUNTABILITY: responsibility. In training, accountability requires that the desired results be specified (in behavioral terms) and that responsibility for achievement of the behavioral objectives be assumed by both trainers and trainees.

ACHIEVEMENT NEEDS: a phrase referring to an individual's desire to successfully perform tasks. (See TASK-ORIENTED.)

ADAPTIVE: showing ability to adjust to the environment. The term was originally used to describe an individual; it is now also applied to groups and organizations. Generally, this term is used to summarize a number of specific actions or events that indicate an individual's ability to adjust to his environment.

AFFECTIVE LEARNING OBJECTIVE: a behavioral objective requiring a change in attitude, values, interest, appreciation, motivation, etc.

AMBIVALENCE: simultaneous attraction toward and repulsion from an object, person, or action. When one says he or she is ambivalent, he may mean that his feelings are mixed or that he is confused.

ASSESSMENT: estimate, appraisal. The first step in the training process, an assessment is made to identify the training needs.

AUDIENCE REACTION TEAM: generally consists of two to five participants who react to a presentation.

AUTHORITY: power to direct or influence a group that is derived either from one's role in the group, or from having information that other group members do not have access to.

BACK HOME: jargon used in training to refer to the job or situation from which a participant has come and to which he or she will return. One might speak of "back-home" problems.

BEHAVIOR CHANGE: a change in the way one conducts oneself; used in training to refer especially to a desired change in job performance.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE (also LEARNING or PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE): a specific statement of the change in knowledge, skill, or attitude expected as a result of training. It should be stated in terms of performance and should be measurable. Behavioral objectives must include a description of the expected behavior, the criteria (to what degree of proficiency the learner should perform the behavior), and the conditions under which the behavior will be demonstrated.

BRAINSTORMING: a free-wheeling technique where creative thinking is more important than practical thinking. Participants spontaneously present ideas on a given topic. No idea is dismissed or criticized. Anything offered is written down. This technique is used to generate as many ideas as possible; participants stimulate each other's thinking. After listing of ideas is completed, the group clarifies, categorizes, or discusses one item at a time--depending on the situation.

BRIDGING ACTIVITIES: activities that assist individuals to translate relating from one situation to another. For example, an action planning activity at the end of a training session serves as a bridge to the work environment.

BUZZ GROUP (SMALL-GROUP DISCUSSION): a technique that involves members of a training group directly in the discussion. The large group is divided into small groups of three or four persons each for brief discussions in which each trainee contributes his or her ideas.

CASE STUDY: a detailed account of a real or hypothetical occurrence (or series of events) about a problem. Usually the problem is one that trainees might encounter on the job. The case is analyzed and discussed, and trainees are often asked to arrive at a plan of action to solve the problem. Case studies can be presented verbally, in writing, on film, or with any combination of media.

CLINIC: a meeting or extended series of meetings involving analysis and treatment of specific conditions or problems.

CLINICAL: an orientation toward reality usually involving a desire to deal with wholes and concrete facts, rather than with parts and concrete facts. A clinical orientation usually involves an attempt to solve problems rather than to merely analyze them.

CLOSED-LOOP SYSTEM: a system that continually functions in this established pattern.

CLOSURE: a sense of having reached a natural stopping place, a feeling of completion.

COGNITIVE APPROACH: an approach involving knowledge and perception. This term is applied to an intellectual rather than emotional approach.

COGNITIVE LEARNING OBJECTIVE: a behavioral objective that requires trainees to remember facts, figures, methods, policies, etc., or to solve some intellectual task, by determining the essential problem and reordering or combining the information with previously acquired knowledge.

COLLOQUY: a modified version of a panel consisting of three or four resource persons and three or four trainees. The trainees express opinions, raise issues, and ask questions that will be discussed by the resource persons. (See PANEL.)

COMMITTEE: a committee consists of a small group of trainees selected to fulfill a function or perform a task that cannot be done efficiently or effectively either by the entire training group or by one person.

CONFERENCE: a meeting of people in large or small groups. The participants usually consult together in a formal fashion on problems to which they give the most serious consideration.

CONFRONTATION: the process by which one person attempts to make another person aware of aspects of his own behavior, usually without consideration of that person's desire for feedback. The phrase, "a confronting style," is sometimes used to describe a person who habitually gives such feedback to others.

CONGRUENT: in agreement with, fitting, or appropriate. (For example, if you are teaching people how to write behavioral objectives, then the behavioral objective of your training session must be congruent with the criteria you teach.)

CONSENSUS: a decision-making process in which all parties involved agree to the final decision. It does not mean that all parties are completely satisfied with the final outcome, but that the decision is acceptable.

CONSORTIUM: an association, society.

CONSULTANT: a resource person; one who has special skills or expertise in a specific area and is brought in temporarily to assist in training or other activities.

CONSULTATION: a discussion between two or more people in which one of the people provides technical assistance. Included are telphone conversations, letters, and on-the-job visits. (See TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE.)

CONTENT: the subject matter--information, concepts, principles, or skills. Communication consists of two levels--content (what is being communicated) and process (feelings about oneself and others during the communication.)

CONTEXTUAL ELEMENTS: a group member's relationships outside the group. Contextual elements include physical and social contacts, emotional relations, contractual relations, and cultural interchange.

CONVENTION: an assembly of people from local groups who are members of a parent organization, either district, State, or national.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSE: a self-instructional course using print and/or nonprint materials as the educational media. Such courses may include tutorial or small group sessions, consultations from a trainer, written assignments, examinations, and grades.

COUNTERDEPENDENT: a technical term in personality theory that refers to behavior that is overly independent. A counterdependent person consistently resists the authority, structure, and leadership of others.

COURSE: an organization of subject matter and related learning experiences provided for the instruction of trainees on a regular or systematic basis, usually for a predetermined period of time (e.g., a semester, a regular school term, or a 2-week workshop).

COVERT: hidden.

COVERT INTENT: the aim or purpose is not easily observable. Can refer to a behavioral objective in which the desired behavior is not necessarily visible; for example, thinking, adding, solving, discriminating.

COVERT RESPONSE: a reaction that is not necessarily visible; for example, discriminating, understanding, and fantasizing.

CRITERION REFERENCED: (See NORM REFERENCED.)

CRITERION TEST: a test designed to measure mastery of a behavioral objective based on a predetermined standard of achievement. This test focuses on job performance capabilities rather than on details of content that are not essential to job performance.

CRITERION TEST ITEM: a written and/or actual performance item that is used to measure the achievement of an objective and is based on a predetermined standard.

CRITICAL INCIDENT: a contrived or dramatized educational experience in written, audio, and/or visual form that simulates real-life events. It generally requires trainee to make decisions and act these out in a laboratory setting. It is often used to give trainees experience in handling interpersonal situations that may arise on the job. For example, the technique could be used to teach foremen how to handle a recalcitrant employee, or to teach interviewers how to obtain information from prospective employees.

CUE: An indirect message, often nonverbal, that indicates a certain feeling, desire, or state of mind. They are often unintentional hints, but they may be given on purpose.

CULTURE: a technical term with many definitions. It is used typically to refer to a behavior characteristic of a group or class.

CURRICULUM: the planned course of study, involving trainee interaction with instructional content, resources, and processes for the purpose of attaining the behavioral objectives.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: a part of the training design process, involving selection of content, development of learning tasks, and organization of the content.

DEFENSIVE: resisting or preventing potential or actual aggression or attack.

DEMONSTRATION METHOD: a presentation that shows how to use a procedure or how to perform certain actions. Basically it is a visual presentation, accompanied by discussion, in which behavioral skills are taught.

DEPENDENT: subordinate; relying on another for support; being influenced by or subject to another.

DEVELOPMENTAL TESTING: part of the validation process in which the training design is successively tested and revised to identify and correct weaknesses. Revisions are made after each test until the acceptable standard is achieved. (See FORMATIVE TESTING.)

DISCUSSION: a method in which a specific topic is talked about in a more or less structured way. It may take several forms--roundtable discussion, guided-group discussion, buzz groups, panels, brainstorming, etc.

DISCUSSION GROUP: a meeting of two or more people to informally discuss a topic of mutual concern. It is generally based on a common background achieved through assigned readings or shared educational experiences.

DISCUSSION STIMULATOR: anything used to bring about a discussion, such as a picture, a quote, a case study, a questionnaire, a list of ambiguous statements which trainees are asked to agree or disagree with, a true-or-false test, a tape recording, a statement, a movie, etc.

DOMAIN OF OBJECTIVES: an indication of the type of learner performance specified in the behavioral objective.

> COGNITIVE OBJECTIVE: those statements specifying the acquisition of particular knowledge or information.
>
> AFFECTIVE OBJECTIVES: those statements specifying the acquisition of particular attitudes, values, or feelings.
>
> PSYCHOMOTOR OBJECTIVES: those statements specifying the acquisition of particular muscular and motor skills.

DYAD: pair; two people.

DYNAMICS: the driving physical, moral, or intellectual forces of any area or the laws relating to them; the pattern of change or growth of an object or phenomenon.

DYSFUNCTIONAL: impaired or abnormal functioning.

EDUCATIONAL GOALS: general statements of what the training should accomplish. They are developed from the needs assessment and are used to write specific behavioral objectives.

EIAG PROCESS: a structured way of learning from experience that forms the basic model for the design of most training sessions. This four-step process is based on the concept that people learn best by being actively involved in their own learning. The learner has an experience, identifies the elements of that experience, analyzes why the elements occurred as they did, and generalizes about the knowledge and skills acquired in this specific situation so that they can be applied in other situations.

EMPATHETIC: from empathy; to be capable of participating in another's feelings or ideas.

ENTRY-LEVEL SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE: the level of skills and knowledge the trainee brings with him or her to training. Training should be designed to bridge the gap between the entry-level skills and the job performance requirements.

ENTRY PROCESS: jargon phrase for the highly complex set of conditions by which a consultant begins to exert influence. The entry process involves important actions separate from the main work of the consultant, although they are naturally closely related.

ENVIRONMENT: used to refer to the physical and social context within which any person, group, or organization functions.

EVALUATION: evaluation of training involves the measurement of participants' reaction to the program, the learning gained, changes in job-related behavior, and tangible results of the training.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION: yeilds information that is used during the development of a curriculum to help improve it.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION: is conducted after the curriculum is completed. It provides information about the effectiveness of the training and is the basis for course revision.

EXERCISE: A patterned activity used in a group to promote awareness of learning. Exercises can be used to demonstrate or practice a concept, or to cause the participants to become more aware of themselves or their interactions with others. (See STRUCTURED EXPERIENCE.)

EXHIBIT: collections of related items displayed to facilitate learning process or to carry an educational, informational, or inspirational message.

EXPECTATIONS: participants' anticipations about content or the group situation.

EXPERIENTIAL: a term for a kind of learning process in which the content is experienced as directly as possible, in contrast to being read about in a book or talked about in lecture and discussion. The term applies to a wide variety of training techniques.

FACILITATE: to make easier; to help bring about. In training, to help bring about the maximum amount of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learning.

FEEDBACK: a report to a person or a group about how the person or group affects the reporter. Feedback is a corrective mechanism through which a person or group learns how well behavior matches intentions.

FIELD TESTING: a stage in the validation process, following developmental testing, that involves trying out the training design on groups of trainees in field situations or in the work environment.

FIELD TRAINING: training that is conducted in the actual work situation. It is used in conjunction with classroom instruction and allows trainees to apply what has been learned.

FIELD TRIP or TOUR: a visit by a training group to a place of educational interest for direct observation and study. Field trips usually involve less than 4 hours, while tours include visits to many points of interest and require from 1 day to several weeks to complete.

FISHBOWL: an experiential training technique in which some members of a group sit in a small inner circle and discuss a topic while other members sit in an outer circle and observe. It is useful as an intergroup training technique. Sometimes each member of the outer group is instructed to observe a particular member of the inner group.

FLIP CHART: a visual aid that consists of large sheets of paper mounted on a pad. (Each sheet is easily flipped over to reveal the next sheet.) Usually refers to collections of charts or illustrations used during demonstration-lectures. Also used to refer to blank pads of newsprint paper used instead of a blackboard. Sheets are easily torn off and taped on walls for a record of the discussion or lecture.

FOLLOWUP EXPERIENCE: a phrase referring to a carefully planned activity that follows and reinforces training.

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS: a training technique for analyzing problems. It consists of listing, side by side, forces that seem to be helping and forces that seem to be hindering the achievement of a stated goal (or resolution of a problem). This listing helps to clarify and define the problem. In addition, possible strategies for dealing with the problem are usually made clear: those forces that help achievement of the goal should be encouraged or strengthened, while those that hinder this achievement should be eliminated or weakened.

FORMATIVE TESTING: testing of trainees during the training process that measures the degree of attainment of the behavioral objectives.

FORUM: an assemblage of trainees where everyone has an opportunity to express his or her views. This expression of views is used to facilitate discussion after a topic has been introduced by a speaker or by a panel, film, or other technique.

FREE DISCUSSION: a discussion that encourages the expression of attitudes and values. The purpose of this discussion is to recognize and clarify differences within the group so that they can be reconciled.

FREEING-UP: jargon, referring to the process by which an individual is able to become less defensive, more open, more "free." It is related to Kurt Lewin's use of the term "unfreezing" to describe the first step in any change process.

FREEZE: to limit oneself to a single, narrow mode of behavior or perception, while at the same time failing to see other possible modes.

FRONT END ANALYSIS: (See NEEDS ASSESSMENT.)

FUNCTIONAL: that which facilitates the attainment of goals.

GAMES: may refer to various techniques used to make certain phenomena more real and immediate. For example, games have been employed to simulate conflict, bargaining, leadership struggles, group norms, etc.

GATEKEEPING: a term used in group dynamics to describe a person who regulates interaction patterns by asking people for their ideas, suggesting to others that they talk less, etc.

GESTALT: a school of thought in psychology. Phenomena are studed and interpreted as patterned wholes rather than as aggregates of parts. It has had major effects on contemporary personality theory. It is now used as a shorthand way of referring to an overall view of anything: a "big picture" approach, e.g., "My gestalt on the issue is...." It is also used increasingly to refer to a collection of techniques that are purported to help people identify and then reorganize their own view of reality.

GOAL: a general statement of what the training should accomplish. Goals are developed from the needs assessment and are used to write behavioral objectives. (See also EDUCATIONAL GOALS.)

GOAL-SETTING: to establish the aim or desired result of training.

GROUP: three or more persons who share the following characteristcs:

- The members think of themselves as a group with an identifable membership.
- They share a common purpose.
- Each member's contributions are valued.
- An open and trusting climate develops.
- The members pay attention to how they work together.
- They can, when they choose to, act together as a single entity.

GROUP DYNAMICS: the study of the forces at work within a group that affect the way it works.

GROUP MAINTENANCE: those behaviors exhibited by group members that help maintain harmonious working relationships among members.

GROUP PROCESS: the actual behavior in a group. It is concerned with how things happen (who talks to whom, how participants develop roles, how decisions are made, how the group handles conflict) rather than what is talked about.

GROWTH: a widely used term, reflecting theorists' and practitioners' concern for improvement in personal, group, and organizational behavior. It is constantly in danger of becoming an ideological cliche. Identification of growth stages, rates, and directions is a major focus of contemporary theory and research.

GUIDED-GROUP DISCUSSION: a structured discussion whose purpose is to cover certain predetermined areas or points. Using an outline or list of "discussion points," the trainer guides the discussion to be sure desired information is shared and discussed.

GUT LEVEL: jargon to describe statements involving feelings or emotions, as opposed to head level.

HELPING RELATIONSHIP: derives from the "client-centered" therapies introduced by Carl Rogers and others. It is used to describe a relationship established to help someone increase his or her ability to cope. It is distinguished from other possible relationships that one could establish with another person; e.g., a casual friendship, etc.

HERE-AND-NOW: a phrase describing the focus of attention on the present; e.g., a focus on what is happening as it occurs.

HIDDEN AGENDA: a personal expectation or motivation which affects how that person behaves in a group or feels about a group, but which is now known to others in the group. A person may have a hidden agenda or a private goal not necessarily identical with the group's goal.

INFLUENCE: the power to cause an effect on others in indirect or intangible ways. As a verb, to have an effect on the condition or development of something or someone.

INFORMATION SHEETS: commonly called "handouts." Information sheets are learning aids given to trainees in support of a presentation. They may be in narrative or outline form, written by the trainer, or copied from published materials.

INPUT: one's contribution to a system, particularly in the form of ideas.

INSTITUTE: a series of events that is designed to assist a trainee to change his or her behavior in order to meet specified behavioral objectives.

INSTRUCTION: a series of events that is designed to assist a trainee to change his or her behavior in order to meet specified behavioral objectives.

INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS: (See TRAINING AIDS.)

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN: (See TRAINING DESIGN.)

INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT: the application of research concerning the learner, the learning task, and the training delivery to the design and production of instructional products and the evaluation of these products according to prespecified criteria.

INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS: (See GOAL.)

INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL: an indication of the general nature and difficulty of instruction; e.g., elementary instructional level, secondary instructional level, and postsecondary instructional level.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: (See MATERIALS.)

INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA: (See MEDIA.)

INSTRUCTIONAL MODULE: (See MODULE.)

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES: (See BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE.)

INSTRUCTIONAL PACKAGE: everything needed to carry out the training. In self-instructional programs, this would include everything the trainee would need to proceed with the course.

INSTRUCTIONAL PRODUCT: any material or group of materials produced for instructional purposes; use of this term in educational technology is limited to items that can be reproduced.

INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCE: determination of the particular order in which skills and concepts will be presented during training. Decisions regarding sequencing are based on the previous analyses of the learner, task, and content.

INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM: a system containing the following elements (activities):

- Needs Assessment
- Goal Development
- Statement of Behavioral Objectives
- Training Design
- Training Activity
- Evaluation
- Validation

INTERACTION: virtually any behavior resulting from interpersonal relationships. In human relations it includes all forms of communication, verbal and nonverbal, conscious and unconscious.

INTERPERSONAL: the generic term for relations between persons--usually two. It is a prefix for many phrases, such as interpersonal relations, interpersonal aspects, interpersonal conflict, etc.

INTERVENTION: an interruption of a group activity that influences the direction, content, behavior, or affect of the group.

INTERVIEW: a presentation in which one or more resource persons responds to questioning by one or more trainees. It is used to explore a topic in-depth where a formal presentation is not desired by either trainees or resource persons.

JUDGMENTAL: expressing an opinion or evaluation that is believed or asserted.

LAB: a shorthand term for any of a wide variety of programs that derive from the "laboratory method of training," an approach that is primarily experiential. The term "lab" has been added to describe many types of training; e.g., "Conflict Lab," "Personal Growth Lab," etc.

LABORATORY METHOD: a basic training approach in which learning comes from both the task and the behavior of trainers and participants in the group. A central concept of the laboratory method is that feelings influence learning; therefore, this method of training attempts to deal with emotional reactions as well as with knowledge and skills.

LEARNER ANALYSIS: the identification of the intended audience for an instructional product, and of the significant traits, aptitudes, and proficiences of that audience.

LEARNER TASK ANALYSIS: an identification of the main skills to be acquired by the learner and the breakdown of these skills into their basic components. It indicates the performance and knowledge requirements for a particular skill.

LEARNING: a change in behavior as a result of practice or experience. The change can be through acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, or skills based on learning in the cognitive, affective, or psychomotor domains.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES: actions or activities that result in an internalized change of behavior or response on the part of the person performing the actions or activities.

LEARNING CONTRACT: a plan of instruction, adaptable to individual differences, in which the course content is divided into a number of long-term assignments. The student receives a contract and is allowed to proceed from one step to the next as each is completed.

LEARNING DEFICIENCY: the difference between the minimum (criterion-referenced) level of performance required and the actual performance of the trainee prior to training.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE: (See BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE.)

LEARNING PACKAGE: (Also called PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION), a self-contained unit of study that enables the learner to move at his or her own pace to reach specified learning objectives.

LECTURE: a carefully prepared, formal, oral presentation of a subject by a qualified expert. An effective lecture will have a clear introduction and a clear summary, and will be limited to what is important.

LECTURE SERIES: a sequence of speeches extended over a period of several days or presented intermittently during several weeks or months.

LECTURETTE: a short informative talk on a limited subject during which questions and comments are discouraged. In training, the purpose is usually to stimulate discussion, summarize preceding discussion, or comment on a specific event.

LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE: a predetermined degree of proficiency to be attained during training.

LISTENING TEAM: a team that listens, takes notes, questions the presenters, and/or summarizes a training session. The team is used to provide interaction between a speaker and the trainees and is especially useful where the speaker is not especially knowledgeable about an agency's unique problems.

LISTING EXERCISES: a form of discussion in which a group devises a list of ideas, concepts, etc., and discusses each item as it is suggested. The finished list constitutes a record and summary of the discussion.

MANAGEMENT-BY-OBJECTIVES: a management strategy developed by Odione that makes the establishment and communication of organization objectives the central function of a manager. It is based on the assumption that supervision and leadership will work best under conditions in which both superiors and subordinates have "contracts" (i.e., agreements) establishing directions, priorities, and objectives.

MASTERY: a demonstration of behavior by the trainee in which he or she shows that he has achieved a specified level of learning.

MATERIALS: anything used in the training process; for example, books, films, papers, or other training aids.

MATRIX: a chart that is used to display the relationship between variables.

MEASURE: a unit of measurement to which reference may be made for purposes of description, comparison, and evaluation.

MEDIA: any means of conveying an instructional message; a channel of communication used to facilitate learning; for example, television, videotape, printed test, graphics.

MEDIATED INSTRUCTION: instruction that is conducted with communications media rather than through direct interaction of the teacher with the student.

METHOD: a basic approach to instruction; for example, lecture, site visit, programmed instruction, and small group discussion.

METHOD, DEMONSTRATION: (See DEMONSTRATION METHOD.)

METHODOLOGY: the organization of methods to achieve specific learning outcomes.

MINICOURSE: a self-contained instructional package dealing with a single concept or skill.

MODEL: a description or analogy used to help visualize something; an example for imitation or emulation.

MODULE: a unit of instruction that covers a specific content area within a given period of time. (See UNIT OF INSTRUCTION.)

MOTOR OBJECTIVE: (See PSYCHOMOTOR LEARNING OBJECTIVES.)

NEED HIERARCHY: as described by Abraham Maslow, needs are arranged in a hierarchy from the most basic biological needs to more variable psychological needs. The highest level is self-actualization. The theory says that "higher" needs cannot be realized until "lower" needs are relatively satisfied. The theory has led to a variety of shorthand phrases for describing "where a person is" in the need hierarchy at a given time; e.g., "esteem level," "social level," "security level," etc. This particular theory was also the basis for McGregor's THEORY X--THEORY Y formulation.

NEEDS: a central concept in psychology, referring to all of the biological and psychological requirements for the maintenance and growth of the human animal; something which an individual or group feels it must have in order to achieve a sense of well being.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT: an appraisal of the existing situation in the work environment, including any interpersonal problems or any lack in knowledge or skills on the part of prospective trainees. The final part of the process is an analysis of those needs to determine how they may best be met.

NEWSLETTER: a document that may include an announcement or report. It is mailed to many people and often carries training information. It is a trainer's way of personally communicating with many people.

NONDIRECTIVE: the name for a method of interviewing first introduced by Carl Rogers. He used it to refer to therapy in which the patient is in charge of the pace, content, and direction of the interchange. The term is now used to refer to any similar approach used by a person in authority; e.g., a teacher or trainer.

NONVERBAL: involving minimal use of language; being other than verbal. It has come to refer to a number of training techniques that do not use language; for example, body movement.

NORM: a principle of right action established by a group and binding upon the members of that group that serves to guide, control, or regulate proper and acceptable behavior. A standard by which members of a group are evaluated.

NORM REFERENCED: the assessment of learner performance in a given area in relation to the performance of some norm or reference group. This is distinguished from criterion referenced, which refers to assessment of performance based on an established standard or criterion.

OFF-SITE: away from the regular place of work.

ON-SITE TRAINING: training conducted in the office or center where the trainees are based. On-site training is not the same as field training or on-the-job training where trainees are in an actual work situation.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING: training that takes place while the trainee is actually doing his or her job under supervision. It differs from field training only slightly in that field training is usually part of a larger program in which trainees apply their training on the job, then return to the classroom to share and discuss what they have learned. (See FIELD TRAINING.)

OPEN-LOOP SYSTEM: a dynamic system with feedback capability that has a continuing influx and output of information.

ORIENTATION: adjustment and familiarization to a situation or environment, such as to a new job or new responsibilities.

OVERT: visible, manifest.

OVERT RESPONSE: observable behavior that is measurable; the level at which the learner can demonstrate a skill.

OWNERSHIP: jargon for the quality of feeling personally committed and hence presumably entitled to influence a situation, as in "I feel some ownership in this program."

PANEL: a training method involving a discussion among four to eight people on an assigned topic in front of the training group. Panel members are often experts in the field under study, but usually represent various backgrounds or opinions. A moderator ensures that order is maintained, that each resource person gets equal time, and that the topic is covered in depth.

PARTICIPANT (LEARNER, TRAINEE): the person from whom the training activity is created and to whom it is presented.

PARTICIPANT-OBSERVER: a group participant who acts as an observer for all or a portion of a training session. In this role he observes and records the activities of other members and then describes these to the group.

PARTICIPATORY TRAINING: the absolute or comparative levels of behavior required to determine achievement of specified behavioral objectives.

POSTTEST: a type of test given at the end of a unit of instruction that measures the amount of information learned by the trainees during that session. The questions are based on the behavioral objectives and the course content for that unit. The word "posttest" can also be used to describe any type of evaluation measure given after training. These measures can be written, verbal, or a demonstration of skills. They are used to determine how well the trainees have attained the objectives and help identify what changes should be made in the training to improve it. The posttest may also serve as a diagnostic tool to identify remaining performance deficiencies.

POWER: the ability to exert influence over a group or over an individual in making decisions, establishing norms, or performing an activity.

PRETEST: an assessment made before instruction to determine the level of knowledge or skill that a learner brings to instruction. The questions deal with the factual material that is included in the training program. Results are compared to those of the posttest to measure the amount of learning accomplished during training.

PROBLEM-ORIENTED TRAINING: training geared to the actual problems that face the people being trained; emphasis is on practicality, not theory.

PROCESS: as a component of communication, the feelings about oneself and others during the communication. Also, a continuing development involving changes; a particular method of accomplishing a task, usually involving a number of steps. In training, process means the steps through which the trainees learn.

PROCESS ELEMENTS: internal and external influences that affect the group process.

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION: a self-instructional teaching format, using print and/or materials as the training medium. Questions are ordered in such a way that correct knowledge is reinforced and mistakes or errors corrected. Examples include programmed textbooks, teaching machines, computer-assisted instruction, and dial-access information retrieval systems.

PROTOTYPE: a near-final model of an instructional product that is tested to determine what modifications of structure and performance are necessary. Based on the success of the prototype, decisions are made concerning the continuation and possible mass production or reproduction of the model.

PSYCHOMOTOR LEARNING OBJECTIVES: a behavioral objective emphasizing motor or muscular skills, or neuromuscular coordination, usually involving manipulation of material or objects.

QUESTION PERIOD: an organized followup session to a lecture or speech in which trainees ask the lecturer questions. It is during this time that trainees ask for clarification of points made in the formal presentation, and ask for information that was not covered by the speaker but is of interest to them.

REACTION PANEL: several trainees placed between the lecturer and the audience and to the side of the lecturer. This panel asks questions during the lecture to clarify the speaker's points. After the lecture, they present their reactions as a group. This is a device to encourage audience involvement in the lecture.

RE-ENTRY: jargon for the process of moving back into one's work situation from a temporary training situation.

RESOURCE PERSON: an individual whose role in a group is to provide information on a subject that the group is interested in.

RESULT DEMONSTRATION: a demonstration that shows by example the concrete outcome of a practice. It often deals with operational costs, production procedures, or with the quality of a product, and generally requires a considerable period of time to complete.

ROLE: a position assigned or assumed; a function.

ROLE PLAYING: a training technique in which a small group of trainees acts out a real-life situation in front of the other trainees. Role playing may be rehearsed beforehand in order to produce a specific effect; it may be spontaneous in order to allow the trainees to define their roles within a specific situation; or it may be structured by the trainer, who will assign specific roles to the trainees. There is no script. Those trainees not assigned a role discuss the performance in relation to the situation or problem under consideration. The training also offers criticisms and suggestions.

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSIONS: discussions usually involving 8 to 12 participants, all of whom are considered equally "expert." The leader may or may not be the trainer. The leader's role is limited to monitoring participation and keeping the discussion focused on the topic.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION: a phrase quite widely used to refer to the process by which an individual reaches the highest level of functioning of which he or she is capable. More concrete definitions are difficult in that, theoretically, self-actualization is different for every person. Self-actualization is the top level in Maslow's need hierarchy. (See NEED HIERARCHY.)

SELF-AWARENESS: a positive goal of most training techniques that aim at behavior change. Self-awareness means becoming aware of one's existing patterns of behavior in a way that allows one to compare these with other behavior patterns wthout reacting defensively.

SELF-CONCEPT: refers to the picture one holds of oneself. This is a collection of feelings, hopes, and beliefs that would be difficult to define. A major object of self-awareness is to identify one's self-concept more accurately and completely.

SELF-INSTRUCTIONAL PACKAGES: packages that contain all the instructional materials needed for independent study of a course.

SEMINAR: a type of discussion group, usually led by a recognized expert who engages in a discussion among a group of trainees studying a specialized topic. The leader generally opens the seminar with a brief presentation, often covering provocative issues, and then guides a discussion in which all trainees participate.

SENSITIVITY TRAINING: methods for improving the individual's sensitivity to himself or herself and others. Although variations exist, common ingredients seem to be: (1) the guidance of a trained person or persons; (2) intense interpersonal experience by the trainee; and (3) a relatively protected environment, free from ordinary pressures and distractions.

SEQUENCE: the order in which different aspects of the instructional program are presented.

SESSION: an ambiguous term that usually refers to a portion of a training program; e.g., "the morning session," "the first day's session." Generally it is used to refer to a period of time of a day or less.

SET: a preparatory adjustment or readiness for a particular kind of action or experience.

SHORT COURSE: a period of intensive training on a specific subject, usually simpler and less concentrated than courses taken for college credit, but having more depth than the single meeting.

SIMULATED TASK ANALYSIS: identification of job performance requirements in an artificial setting (e.g., in a class) using knowledge of jobs and the imagination.

SIMULATION: a contrived educational experience, in audiovisual or model form, that has the characteristics of a real-life situation. Simulation allows the trainee to make decisions or take action in a laboratory setting prior to interacting with people and things in a real-life situation. Examples include driver/trainer simulators, and educational "games" such as Monopoly, Blacks and Whites, or CLUG (Community Land Use Game) that require actions by the trainees.

SKILL: technical expertness, proficiency; the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in performing or executing something; a developed aptitude or ability.

SKILL-BUILDING: refers to anything that promotes proficiency or expertness.

SKIT: a brief, rehearsed, dramatic presentation involving two or more trainees. Working from a prepared script, the trainees act out an event or incident that dramatizes a situation.

STRATEGY: a planned series of activities that involves the choice of one approach over another.

STRUCTURAL: pertaining to the structure of an organization as it is described in organizational charts, job descriptions, and task assignments.

STRUCTURED EXPERIENCE: an experience that is designed to achieve a certain purpose. The written design must include a goal statement, a description of the process, a notation of group size and time and materials required, and a description of the physical setting.

SUMMATIVE TESTING: (See EVALUATION.)

SUPPORT PERSONNEL: those persons who provide assistance in the training effort. They may be working in the areas of recruitment, field services, accounting, facility management, material procurement, A-V, library, public relations, evaluation, or research.

SYMPOSIUM: a series of prepared lectures given by two to five resource persons, each speaker presenting one aspect of the topic. The presentations should be brief and to the point, and should generally not exceed 25 minutes.

SYSTEM: an organized assemblage of interrelated components designed to function as a whole to achieve predetermined objectives.

SYSTEMS APPROACH: a manner of designing and evaluating systems that minimally includes specification of objectives in measurable terms, restatement of objections in terms of capabilities and constraints, development of possible approaches, selection of appropriate approaches as a result of a tradeoff study, integration of the approaches, and evaluation of the effectiveness of the system in attaining objectives.

SYSTEMS THEORY (GENERAL SYSTEMS THEORY): describes the relationship between complex interacting components and organized wholes. (See OPEN-LOOP SYSTEM and CLOSED-LOOP SYSTEM.)

TARGET AUDIENCE: that portion of the total learner population selected for exposure to instruction. This group is generally identified in terms of certain common social and/or learning characteristics.

TASK GROUP: a group of people who work together to complete a specific task.

TASK LEADER: a role that commonly emerges in any group, the task leader is the person who exercises the most influence on the way the group attempts to accomplish its main task.

TASK-ORIENTED: mostly interested in accomplishment of the task.

TEACHING: the term commonly used to indicate face-to-face instruction. Teaching is usually subject-oriented, whereas training is problem-oriented--designed to solve a specific problem.

TEAM: a number of persons associated together in work or activity.

TEAM-BUILDING: improving relations within a group or team.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE: the provision of technical services in response to a request.

TECHNIQUE: activities that are used as a tool within a certain method. More general in nature than exercises, techniques are not an end in themselves. Examples are brainstorming, using a fishbowl, pairing, and using audiovisual aids.

TECHNOLOGY: a standardized, communicable way of achieving a practical purpose. It is used increasingly in organizational development to refer to ways of making interventions, as in "team-building technology."

THERAPY: an activity that has as its purpose the improvement of the physical and/or mental functioning of a person.

TRAINER: one who conducts training. This term may also be applied to one who develops a training program. Trainers should be able to conduct needs assessments, develop training, and conduct and evaluate training.

TRAINING: a sequence of experiences; a series of opportunities to learn in which one is exposed in a more or less systematic way to certain materials or events.

TRAINING ACTIVITIES: the actual learning experience to which a trainee is exposed during training. Training activities can include use of different methods and techniques such as: guided-group disucssions, buzz groups, written exercises, lectures.

TRAINING AIDS: these convey information and ideas to participants by appealing to their senses of sound, sight, and touch. Training aids can greatly facilitate the learning process. Some examples are flip charts, overhead projectors, etc.

TRAINING DESIGN: a detailed, step-by-step plan that describes how learning will take place during the training. It is an arrangement of methods into a detailed plan for a training session. A functional training design should include: (1) behavioral objectives; (2) what the trainee will learn--the topic to be covered, task to be performed, or activity to be undertaken; (3) how the trainee will learn--description of the methodology; (4) time allotted for accomplishing the methodology; and (5) materials and/or equipment needed.

TRAINING MATERIALS: (See MATERIALS.)

TRAINING PACKAGE: (See INSTRUCTIONAL PACKAGE.)

TRAINING PROCESS: Includes four phases--needs assessment, development, delivery, and evaluation.

UNIT OF INSTRUCTION: a unit of instruction is a planned series of learning activities or experiences that has: (1) predetermined, stated objectives; (2) a definite beginning and a definite end; (3) a specified learner population; and (4) some specified means of assessing the learning that has taken place as a result of the interaction between the learner and the unit of instruction. Although no particular length is prescribed for a unit of instruction, it is usually thought of as shorter in length than a course.

VALIDATE: to confirm the soundness of; to verify.

VALIDATED INSTRUCTION: instruction that has been shown to do what it was intended to do.

VALIDATION: the process of developmental testing, field testing, and revising a training activity to be certain its behavioral objectives are achieved.

VALUES CLARIFICATION: a process which helps an individual identify his or her basic values. This process often involves using exercises.

VALUING: showing preference for selected activites; becoming committed.

WORKSHOP: a training method that permits extensive study of a specific topic. Fifteen to 20 people meet together to improve their proficiency, to collectively develop new operating procedures, or to solve problems.

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(CONTINUED FROM INSIDE FRONT COVER)

- Participant Manual

  The Participant Manual has two primary purposes: 1) to provide resources that are essential to understanding course content, and 2) to provide materials that enable participants to be actively involved in the learning exercises.

- Other Materials

  The following list represents the minimum materials required for the course. Visuals are provided in the modules of this manual and can be used as overhead transparencies or as a guide in preparing flip chart training aids.

  - Flip chart(s) and easel(s)
  - Newsprint
  - Felt-tip markers
  - Masking tape
  - Pencils
  - Legal pads or paper
  - Participant Manuals
  - Overhead projector
  - Participant list
  - Registration sheet
  - Photocopies of Pretest, Posttest, and the Posttest Answer Sheet (one per participant).

SPACE REQUIREMENTS

This course requires one large workroom (suitable to 20-24 participants) equipped with chairs and tables, or chairs and a suitable writing surface. The room should be sufficiently large so that participants are uncrowded and reasonably comfortable.

Two smaller rooms (sufficient to accommodate a maximum of 8-10 persons) are also required for small group activities. These rooms should also be equipped with a chair and a suitable writing surface for each participant.

LENGTH OF COURSE AND EVALUATION

Training of Trainers is designed as a 5-day, 35 contact-hour course. At a minimum, an additional 5 hours will be required to complete supplementary reading assignments.

Two standards are used to evaluate each participant's performance in this course:) attendance at the course delivery sessions, and 2) the score on the posttest. Par-icipants who are certified as having successfully completed the course must have been present for not less than 32 of the 35 scheduled hours and must achieve a score of not less than 75 percent on the posttest.